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**DEVELOPING A FACULTY COMMITTEE ON PUPIL
ADJUSTMENT**

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The purpose of this article is to explain the development of "A Faculty Committee on Student Adjustments" as clearly and completely as possible. The philosophy behind the idea, the arrangement of the plan, the changes that have been made in these as the committee has worked upon them during the past two years, and the nature of the problems that have been handled by the Committee will be considered.

Not long ago, the writer was visiting one of the largest high schools in the South. While I was there, the principal of that school was asked how he dealt with his problem cases and what he considered the greatest weakness of his method. To this he replied that he had found nothing which took the place of the personal conference, and that he recognized that he often failed to get the desired results with problem cases because of the lack of sufficient time to deal properly with the individual, or the need of an organization which would provide persons who could give such problems the necessary consideration.

For some time after that discussion, the writer's attention was centered on this problem—one that every high-school principal must face: What shall be done with and for the problem cases? Often teachers complain that too much time and attention are given to the least promising pupils. Every principal knows that these problems will demand more than their share of time and attention. The best method of dealing with these cases, however, is that which gets the most advantageous results with the individuals concerned and which the most progressively decreases the time each of them demands.

About two years ago the writer was asked to lead a discussion on the problem of guidance at a state conference of

high-school principals. In preparation for this discussion, some of the teachers of our local high school were requested to write an answer to this question: "What should a pupil entering high school expect from the administration in the way of guidance?" In response to this question, one teacher gave the following written reply.

- (1) A student should expect the school to do him no harm, in any way.

This throws a great responsibility on the administration. Much of our education has been, and still is, not education, but malpractice. Required gymnastics may injure some bodies; courses pitched too high or too low in requirements may smother or warp a capacity; social contacts permitted may invite bad habits or vice; clashes of personalities in the classroom may breed sullenness or a sense of injustice; the organizations setup in a large school may so bewilder a student as to cheat him out of their benefits. All of these factors of school life, if not worked out to the benefit of the student, will positively result in harming him. If an elaborate, expensive provision is not possible, a simple, carefully thought-out plan will work and is an obligation on the part of the administration. There follows then that . . .

- (2) A student should expect his physical make-up to be understood.

This is a tremendous challenge in itself, opening vistas of service without end. If any records have been kept for individual students in the elementary schools, they should be filed with the high school when the student enters as a freshman. If not, some records should be begun by the high school. If the aid of regular school physicians is financially impossible, records should be undertaken on a simpler scale by the faculty setup appointed by the office. The study of these record cards should be an obligation on class-room teachers especially if they are referred to them. A child's physical requirements should take precedence over all official routine. Some guidance setup should centralize a watchfulness with authority.

- (3) A student should expect a school to understand his capacities better than he understands them himself.

His I.Q. should be on record and should be used in mapping his course. Too difficult courses and too easy courses are equally harmful; yet there should be enough latitude and scope on a horizontal plane to allow considerable freedom of choice along vocational lines possible to that level of ability. A forward look to a choice of vocation has its place here, involving endless detail.

(4) A student cannot have a bird's-eye-view of all the detailed offerings of a school. Even a classroom teacher has no such concept. A student has the right to expect to be aided expertly as to the best choices for himself. That is, every student's program should be an individual study made by a centralized authority which is well versed in the offerings of the school and the community, in the outlook of the child's home, in his health, in his I.Q., and in his disposition. The student should even expect to be relieved of the confusion, embarrassment, and the loneliness of a crowd of personalities and of mechanical details.

- (5) A student has a right to expect to be guided into contacts that are socially and morally inspirational.

We have been afraid to appropriate a student's personal life as a field of effort. We have been too busy with little scholastic details, too indifferent to big individualisms. It has been everybody's, nobody's business; it should be somebody's business. A knowledge of the student's life in the school itself is one phase of this challenge, but another phase is a knowledge of his home.

- (6) The student has a right to be understood as a product of his home.

It is impossible to understand him otherwise. Some systematized, centralized records should be kept about his home, contacts to be made by an organization arranged by the administration. His social needs should be noted.

(7) A student has a right to have his character and disposition patterns receive consideration.

Some guidance authority, who has well in mind all the faculty faults and merits, all the faculty patterns of discipline, the classroom management, and the manner of contacting students should place the student where he will work to advantage as far as social adjustment, character development, and scholarship are concerned. He should be rescued and transferred from a misfit to a student who is properly adjusted to his environment.

(8) A student has the right to expect some definite guiding effort to lead him to higher character levels.

This should not be a casual by-product of a traditional regime. It should be a separate program, conscious of its own purpose. It may consist of group discussions, projects, and private conferences. As a reverse to predication 8, a student's mistakes, blunders, and vices should be dealt with sympathetically, with an educational goal in mind. In other words, a school must recognize that a student's character is not fully developed.

(9) The student has a right to claim one faculty member as his special friend.

He should belong to some guiding spirit. If this cannot be a centralized counselor, it can be an assigned teacher, interested and willing. This teacher differs from a home-room teacher. Sections are, for the most part, mechanical. This guiding teacher, whether a centralized counselor or not, should study all the student's record cards and add to them, and she should concern herself in his successes, his failures, and his problems—making it a personal matter to do so.

A student does not consciously realize what he has a right to expect, but he has a right to expect it, nevertheless.*

This reply began a series of discussions between this teacher and the principal which led to a definite attack on the guidance program as it applied to problem cases. Certain specific needs of our school have been recognized for some time: (1) The need for enlisting more specific faculty service in the cause of character training; and (2) The need of provision for the guidance over a long period of time of an individual problem pupil by an individual personality (teacher).

It was agreed that this called for a new organization in our faculty. Personal work in conduct-guidance by individual members of the faculty was seen as necessary. One teacher can, of necessity, keep up with only a few cases in addition to her classroom work. To begin with, it was agreed that this service should enlist a group of picked teachers; picked because of their willingness and interest, and in their ability in this field. After numerous discussions, the following **plan of attack** to begin with was set down:

1. A faculty committee of five shall be selected by the principal.
2. These five teachers shall meet daily during a school period, say the fifth or sixth period. The nature of their work shall be com-

*Mrs. Marie Foote, teacher, Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama.

pletely divorced from the idea of detention or punishment, with both teacher and student.

3. Cases shall be referred to this committee from the office only. All other sources, such as teachers or monitors, who have cases they desire to refer to the committee, will first refer them to the office.
4. Each case shall be delegated to or chosen by one of the five faculty members for personal attention, after a group consideration of it. The group shall decide whether the case shall be closed with a single treatment or shall be indefinitely adopted. Group discussions of the case shall be renewed, and recommendations shall be changed by the request of any member of the committee. Reports of progress shall be made to the group periodically.
5. Detention shall be barred as a task assigned. During the year, detention rooms if kept, shall be kept by non-committee teachers. However, conferences after the end of the school day are not to be construed as detention.
6. The teacher handling the case shall keep (in triplicate) a continuing record of it. Copies of both an initial and a final report shall be filed with the principal.
7. Once an official report recommends adoption, all new offences developing in the case or by the offender elsewhere shall be referred to the committee.
8. An adoption shall call for a regularly scheduled interview between the offender and the teacher-guide. This interview may take place at any time of day convenient to both parties. It shall be for the purpose of checking on tasks assigned, continuing discussions of points involved, and the consideration of new offences, encouragement, and reports of "everything all right."
9. Any member of this faculty committee shall have authority to interview any offender during the period of the committee meeting.
10. An offender may be considered for release from this "adoption" at any time he requests. In such case, he is to be returned to the office for attention. However, great care should be observed in giving the offender the teacher of his choice, if possible and if desirable.
11. This leads to the possibility of paroling an offender to a teacher who is not a member of the committee. In this case, the guiding teacher shall give periodic, written reports to the committee. Such a case would be indirectly under the charge of a committee member. This brings into service more faculty members which would in itself be good.
12. It is not desirable to have any rigid organization for this committee. Its work should be left as elastic as possible.

All the provisions in this arrangement were not found to be wise when put into practice and some modifications, therefore, were made as experience justified. This proposed plan or arrangement was explained to the entire faculty for discussion, suggestions, and approval. The faculty approval gave strength to the movement that it could not otherwise have secured.

(Statements made here and on the following pages are based on reports made to the principal on the work of the committee by the chairman of the committee for sessions 1935-36, 1936-37.)

In accordance with this plan, a committee of five specially selected teachers was appointed. This committee met

for the first time on November 4, 1935, with no set program and no work to do, awaiting assignments from the office.

The teacher appointed as chairman of this faculty committee was one who has been adviser to the Honor Committee for several years, which committee is connected with the Student Coöperative Government Association. She had had a wealth of experience with cases brought before that committee. The fact that some cases brought before the student committee needed more attention and service than the Student Government group could give was an influence that partly caused the establishment of the Faculty Committee on Student Adjustments. The first few days were spent, therefore, in discussing the work of the Honor Committee, setting up an organization, and adopting methods of procedure.

The work of the committee up to the present has been largely experimental. They have gone exploring to find a place of service for themselves in Murphy High School. At the beginning, their intention was to limit their efforts to pupils who had conduct difficulties. This very intention carried them over into other fields. From the beginning, it was planned that nothing of intentions, procedures, or policies should be fixed, but, that all should be free to develop with any changing conditions or situations. Service throughout was voluntary, friendly, and motivated by personal faith and convictions.

The tasks assigned to the committee fall into two groups: (1) Cases of problem pupils with conduct difficulties, and; (2) Surveys which may lead to new fields of effort for the years ahead.

The committee has divided the problem-pupil assignments into three classes: long cases, short cases, and single-offence cases. A long case is the assignment of a problem pupil for an indefinite period of time. The aim is to change the student's point of view, encourage the discouraged, or adjust the maladjusted. A short case is the assignment of a problem-pupil for a definite period of time; that is, until a definite goal has been reached. A single-offence case is the assignment of a situation or of a particular difficulty involving one or many pupils, to be terminated at the close of its settlement.

Surveys have been of two kinds: (1) Of those pupils whose report on conduct was excessively low, and; (2) Of those pupils who failed a majority of their classes the previous semester.

During the first year this committee handled nine long

cases and numerous short cases and single-offence cases. Surveys were made of all the pupils in our school who had received abnormally low conduct grades and of all the pupils who failed in three or more subjects. Detailed reports of the results obtained are on file in the principal's office. These reports contain material enough for several articles, and space cannot be given here for the statement of specific results. The purpose in this article is to explain the development of the organization.

In the course of the year's work, certain general points had to receive consideration. Such as those presented in dealing with long cases will illustrate the spirit, the purpose, and the method of the committee's work.

It was necessary that the steps involved in getting assignments to the committee be worked out. At first, the committee recommended taking a problem case concerning a student who was at the moment in serious trouble. This, the group thought, would give them a grave problem to solve at once, would place the pupil in readiness to receive guidance, and would demonstrate to him effectively their methods. In one case, a boy was given a choice between suspension and being assigned to the committee as a long time case. In every case the purpose of the teacher group was carefully explained to the pupil, because it was a new agency in the school organization. At no time was a pupil forced to accept the assignment of the committee, but was told of its purpose and elected to go. In most cases the principal conferred with the pupil in the presence of a member of the committee. Details of the case were thus explained to the committee, and the assignment was made definitely official and accepted by the pupil. Later, after having had experience with a few cases, and after the work of the committee had become known, assignments on general charges were accepted without office conferences, and the pupil was called before the committee and told of the report they had concerning him.

In the beginning, no student was called before the entire committee. The idea was to have the student deal at all times with only one teacher, his sponsor. This policy was modified for two reasons:

1. When a member of our committee explained, in a private interview with the student to be assigned, our purposes and practices, much of the give-and-take of the interview was lost to the other members. We also decided later that it was desirable to have the student feel that he belonged to the whole committee, even though he was assigned to a single teacher. We, therefore, found it more satisfactory to have the student appear before our five mem-

bers. This interview concluded with asking the student to name the teacher he preferred as a guiding friend.

2. It became desirable in two cases, after a month or more of work, to recall a student before our five members. This was to inform him that we expected greater coöperation if he stayed with us. In both cases, the boys elected to remain with us and try harder. This recall was always at the request of the sponsor."*

The choice of a guiding teacher by a pupil was a new thing in our school. Some faculty members doubted that it would work satisfactorily. It must be remembered that the assignment in all cases was voluntary on the part of both student and teacher. The teacher, though asked for by a student, did not need to accept the charge. Experience so far has been that no teacher has refused an assignment. This element of choice has possibly been the most successful phase of the cases. Most of the pupils were found to have decided preferences, and very decided aversions. To have assigned one arbitrarily to the wrong faculty personality would have wrecked a case at the beginning. It is a growing conviction here that the element of choice is excellent.

In a number of cases, the teacher guide visited the home of the student assigned, explained our purpose to the parents, and observed conditions. Without exception, every parent interviewed has expressed appreciation. Messages of appreciation have also been received. However, if for any specific reason, a sponsor felt that a visit to the home would be unwise, she was free to omit the visit.

There was no definite procedure for turning a student back to the administration. This was done by conference with the principal. The details were left indefinite to suit changing phases of different situations. No two personalities, no two cases, no two situations are precisely alike; therefore, we have kept methods and treatment flexible in all the work of the committee.

Three of the nine charges received from the office in the first session were returned to the office for general routine treatment. Two of these boys were so incorrigible that to retain them would have been bad for the boys as well as for the committee. It was desired that the committee should at no time seem to be an easy haven for anyone. There were, however, even with these two boys, certain encouraging developments present, at least temporarily. The third boy was retained by his sponsor unofficially. This means that she con-

*From report of Faculty Committee on Student Adjustments, June, 1936.

tinued her interest in him. She wished to turn the case back officially in order to be relieved of responsibility, since the boy was not responding as he should have.

In the course of the year, our policy in another detail was changed. It was first thought wise for all the complaints regarding an assigned student to be handled by the committee. This was changed. Complaints and offenses are still reported to the committee, but if a student is in line for a penalty or a reprimand, it seems best to let him receive it, and to then take the matter up with his sponsor also. The committee is to be no refuge for an offending student.

As numbers of cases came to the committee for consideration, it became necessary to increase the number of teachers who would be willing to be used in the capacity of sponsor. Therefore, a call was made for teachers to volunteer for this service. To this call a great majority of the faculty responded. Thus, the work of the committee was shared by the whole faculty group.

Each sponsor has always been free to handle situations in her own case as she has thought wise. However, the entire committee has had frequent discussions relating to each case in the course of the regular weekly reports made to it. The sponsors have very often brought individual problems to the entire committee for advice. It has been found effective for an assigned student to feel that every member of the committee is personally interested in him. Frequent conferences with the principal, of course, were also held. Thus, the school unites in attacking the problem of maladjusted pupils.

In the committee's report to the principal on results with long cases, the chairman makes this statement:

1. We have done no apparent harm. This is, in itself, no idle statement. We have had no clashes anywhere.
2. We have held to friendly efforts throughout. This is recognized alike by all students and faculty members.
3. The unofficial continuance in school of a teacher's guiding interest is a very satisfactory development.
4. Better school adjustments have been apparent in a number of cases.
5. The sponsors are unanimous in the feeling that the personal tie with an assigned student will endure beyond school years.*

The committee is working at present on a survey of the school relative to excessive absences and tardinesses. The aim is to find out the causes and to discover how they may be justified or removed.

*From report of Faculty Committee on Student Adjustments, June, 1936.

The object is not to analyze conditions in order that the school may make a rule that will improve its record, but to make a study of the individuals concerned so that they may be helped by means of a changed attitude, and may enjoy successful relations with the school. The individual's record, not the school's record, is in the forefront. Satisfactory results may be expected as work progresses next semester. This seems to the writer to be an example of vitalized research work.

The work of this committee is still somewhat in the experimental stage in that its procedure is continually being modified and new fields are being attacked, but the result of the past two years justifies faith in the place of such a committee in our school. Certain specific values have been derived from the effort of the group. The thinking of the whole faculty has been honey-combed by the many contacts with the teachers. This in itself may well be considered a contribution to the welfare of the school. To induce teachers to feel the need of not only discovering and reporting problems but to seek their solution in every way possible and with every aid available is greatly to be desired. To know why one pupil fails is as important to teaching as to know why another one succeeds.

In conclusion, let me quote from the committee's report again:

We feel that the committee has been a clearing house for the school's conscience. It has been a final effort to reconstruct. If we fail, we do so with fewer regrets and less accountability than would otherwise be possible. We believe that in certain types of cases the influence of the home, the street, the wrong companionships, the automobile, examples of greed and graft in high places, and night life are so insidious and blighting that, if we fail, we fail with good grace. We have at least tried. What we do accomplish is just so much to the good. The school can hope to lift most of these maladjusted students to a little higher than the level of our times, but not much higher. Some of the cases are beyond adjustment. The work we have done has made us more alert to many problems; it has, in a sense, been sobering and challenging to us."

*From report of Faculty Committee on Student Adjustments, June, 1936.

ADMINISTRATION OF GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

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Guidance has come to be recognized as a desirable and necessary part of the educational program. Parents and laymen have become keenly sensitive to the importance of guidance. Because of these facts, there is need of an inventory on the administration of guidance in the public secondary schools.

The aim of a study which has just been completed by the writer was to determine contemporary practices in the administration of guidance in American secondary schools. The results of the study should be helpful to administrators who may now be in charge of such programs or are at present organizing a program of this sort. The use of certain guidance practices by the schools studied does not necessarily mean that these are the best procedures, nor does the non-usage of a practice necessarily mean that it is one which should be less carefully considered.

The investigation was carried on through the use of a printed questionnaire. This questionnaire was nine months in the making, and the tenth form was the one finally distributed. This form was the result of the combined criticisms of over one hundred guidance workers and administrators of the Middle West.

Since the investigation was for the purpose of ascertaining good and poor practices in the administration of guidance, it was decided to send these questionnaires to school systems designated as having outstanding guidance programs. John Callahan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Wisconsin, wrote to the other forty-seven state superintendents and asked for a list of the schools which they believed had the outstanding guidance programs in their states. After the first questionnaire was sent out, follow-up letters were written wherever necessary. Returns were received from seventy-eight per cent of the schools contacted.

A summary of the data gathered in the study is presented under the two following classifications:

1. Size of schools: Group I, Less than 200; Group II, 200-499; Group III, 500-999; and Group IV, 1000 and over.
2. Geographical division used by Fowlkes:^{*} Division A,

^{*}Fowlkes, J. G. *School Bonds*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1924. Pp. 155.

Eastern or Industrial; Division B, Southern; Division C, Great Lakes or Manufacturing; Division D, Great Plains or Agricultural; and Division E, Western.

The evidence derived from a summarization of the collected data tends to show that the guidance practices in American secondary schools are in need of revision. Specifically it has been found that:

1. In every function of guidance, the principal was found to be the one outstanding individual in charge. This holds true regardless of classification of the schools by enrollment groupings or geographical divisions. In nearly all of the schools the principal "heads guidance work in a general way." Seldom does he "personally carry on the guidance work." In the smaller schools the administrator has charge of "attendance" and "tardiness," while in the larger schools this is done by office workers. The guidance responsibilities of administrators are not peculiar to a given geographical division. There are more responsibilities of the administrator which are peculiar to enrollment grouping than to geographical divisions.

2. Few schools, except in the East, have full-time guidance workers. The classification "part of the afternoon" devoted to guidance work is the most frequently used. Teachers of social studies, English, and mathematics are more often chosen for guidance work than teachers of other subjects. However, teachers of music, French, Latin, physical education, manual arts, and home economics are also assigned to counseling work in some of the schools. In very few instances have workers had any formal training in guidance, case studies, tests, and measurements.

3. The time allotted to registration work varies from one hour in one school to six months in another. The administrator of the school marking one hour as the time allotted to registration work felt that one hour of questions and answers was all that was needed in planning and arranging the pupil's program. On the other hand, it is obvious that six months is too long. The majority are in favor of from five to six weeks of time devoted to arranging and planning the pupil's program.

4. The principal is the one individual who is predominantly in charge of registration and pre-registration. However, as the school enrollment increases, the tendency is for the principal to relinquish this duty to the home-room teacher, advisor, or counselor.

5. Issuing bulletins to incoming students concerning courses offered seems to be a general practice regardless of

the size of the school.

6. The practice of having the high-school principal visit the elementary schools or of sending students to the high school prior to the entrance into high school of these students is a common practice in all schools.

7. Small school principals do not make a practice of meeting with the parents of pupils coming to the high school for the first time.

8. The method used least by schools, regardless of size, is to have teachers visit the pupils at their grade schools prior to their entrance into high school.

9. The schools in the Great Lakes and Southern sections usually require several individuals to give their approval before allowing a pupil to change his program. These changes usually are permitted during the early part of the school year.

10. The schools of the Eastern, Great Plains, and Western sections usually require the approval of only one individual in allowing changes in a pupil's program. However, the larger the schools, the greater is the tendency to have combinations of individuals in charge of program changes.

11. In most cases where a change in the pupil's program is approved by one individual, that individual is the principal.

12. In the majority of the schools, pupil conferences are used in the treatment of failure cases. There is a general tendency to take into consideration a child's capacity when giving grades.

13. Case studies, remedial work, and testing seem to be used very little in the treatment of failure cases.

14. There is agreement among the schools as to a definite time to check failures. This period is at the time report cards are issued.

15. Most schools arrange for interviews whenever the pupils wish. In most cases interviews are allowed during the school day. The interviews in most cases are voluntary and not required.

16. There is a decided difference in the way pupils are assigned to home rooms. Schools within the same system do not always use the same method of home-room assignment. This might be expected since conditions differ among schools within the same system many times as much as do schools in different systems. The most frequent methods of assignment were "by class" and "class and alphabetical."

17. There are regular vocational courses taught in one-half of the schools investigated.

18. In schools not having a regular vocational course, information on vocations is disseminated mainly through classes in English, social sciences, commerce, industrial arts, and mathematics.

19. All schools use trips to plants, motion pictures, slides, talks, pupil investigations, pamphlets, and the library as part of the work in vocational guidance.

20. Most schools having vocational guidance talks permit the attendance of anyone interested.

21. In the smaller schools, the pupils are permitted to stop and question the speaker on vocations at any time. This is not the case in the schools enrolling over five hundred pupils.

22. Few schools provide the speakers with outlines or require their use if provided.

23. Most schools keep the guidance records in the administrative office. All schools, regardless of enrollment or geographical location, record the following facts on the final record card: (a) Child's name; (b) Past scholastic record; (c) Past attendance record; and (d) Tardiness record. The facts which are recorded least often by the schools are: (a) State standardized test results; (b) Number of older children in the family; (c) Number of younger children in the family; and (d) Employment record. However, none of these facts should be deleted from the record card. For example, since Wisconsin, during the past few years, has launched a state program of standardized tests, the final record cards should include space to record the results. As the use of personality tests becomes more prevalent, schools should make provisions to include these results on the final record.

24. Practically all schools use a cumulative record, with most of the schools starting these records in the first grade.

25. There is no conformity as to the grades, or combinations of grades, in which intelligence and achievement tests should be given. Neither is there much agreement as to which tests to use. There is agreement, however, in having the principal be the one individual most frequently mentioned as having charge of the testing program. This fact again points to the necessity for a strong background of training in guidance, educational psychology, tests, and measurements for the principal.

26. The standards used to evaluate the possible outcomes of guidance practices which rank highest and hence can be said to be of major importance are not the same for all enrollment groups. There is, however, relative agreement among the

schools in regard to practices of major and minor values. When the rankings of the standards are studied on the geographical division basis, it is seen that there is agreement between the rankings by enrollment groups and those of the regional groups.

The rankings place the following standards at the head of the list: (a) Decrease in the number of pupil failures; (b) Better relationship between school and parents; and (c) Better relationship between pupils and teachers.

27. Home calls are frequent in all sections except the South. Parent counseling at night is not prevalent in any section except the Great Lakes region.

As a result of this study the following recommendations are offered: (a) All administrators should be required to take appropriate courses in guidance, psychology, case study, testing, and measurements; (b) All teachers should be required to meet definite certification standards to be set up by the state departments of education. These standards should include courses in guidance, psychology, case study, testing, and measurements; (c) The publication of a handbook on registration practices and aids is necessary. This would serve as a guide to those in charge of administering the registration work and would help improve and unify methods of procedure in this phase of educational guidance; (d) Failure cases should be treated through the use of scientific, objective devices. The failing pupil should be tested, the findings diagnosed, and remedial treatment prescribed; (e) The field of vocational guidance is definitely in need of samples of well-organized programs. These could serve as suggested programs, and with alterations could be adapted for use in schools not having trained guidance workers; (f) There is need for improvement in the practice of child accounting. Few schools have adequate or correlated records. These records should be in triplicate form so one set can be left in the administrative office, one set in the home room, and one set in the physical education office; (g) Stress should not be placed on a demand for new tests, but on the proper interpretation of the tests which are available. This can be accomplished by requiring all teachers to take courses in tests and measurements. Teaching loads should be reduced in order to allow teachers adequate time to interpret the results and apply remedial treatment; and (h) Constant evaluation of guidance practices is necessary in order that time may be devoted to these phases which are deemed to be most valuable.

CURRICULUM BUILDING IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

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Until the last few years, the conventional method of reorganizing the curriculum consisted of a revision of the content of the various subject-matter fields, done either at stated intervals or whenever the group felt like doing so. The process involved, eliminating, adding, or shifting around certain aspects of the content of the existing courses. Frequently new courses were added, and occasionally some were removed. The organization of the material was logical, and sequence depended upon the nature of the subject. The objectives of the course were stated in terms of the contribution that each of the subjects might make to some notion of the general curriculum pattern. Courses of study were built specifying content for each subject.

But as time went on and conditions changed, dissatisfaction with "resurfacing" the curriculum arose. Some believed that there were too many subjects in the curriculum, and that reorganization by addition or deletion of courses was unsound. If one adds, one must likewise eliminate; and if one adds without relationship to a basic plan, one further confuses. Therefore, they argued, it is necessary to reconsider the entire purpose and underlying philosophy of the school for the selection of curriculum content.

There was, also, a general belief that the curriculum did not provide the means for making available to all pupils experiences which should be common to everybody,—as those that have to do with safety, health, recreation, vocations, consumption, and the more general activities in which all people are likely to engage. Such a collection of specialized fields of knowledge represented in the secondary schools was not likely to produce common understanding of common problems.

Then there was very definite interest in reorganizing the curriculum to give it a more fundamental social orientation. In times of economic and social disturbance, as we have been experiencing recently, men are prone to think of fundamental reorganization. Some of the results of that thinking are becoming evident in the organization of a number of curriculum programs for secondary schools to-day. But as is to be expected, there is a wide difference of opinion.

Moving under divergent leadership and lacking any generally accepted philosophy clear and definite enough to direct

curriculum organization, the secondary-school programs of America to-day represent wide differences in practice. While there are emerging certain common patterns, the form of curriculum development to-day is likely to represent the philosophy and method of the dominant leader in the program. In some areas, local people are supplying the leadership for the curriculum revision program; in other places, leadership is being furnished by the state department of education or by the county offices, through their supervisory staff; and in still other places, consultants from outside the local area are supplying the leadership. Then, too, there are organized groups to promote curriculum revision. In eleven southern states, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has formulated a commission to encourage experimentation in certain individual secondary schools. For several years the Progressive Education Association, through its Commission on the Relation of Secondary Schools and Colleges, has stimulated and aided the formulation of experimental curriculum programs. Similar attempts to encourage local school experimentation are under way in Michigan, Ohio, and California. With so much experimentation going on under such a wide range of leadership, large differences in curriculum organization are to be expected and desired.

These differences, however, are not so great that they cannot be classified. For the purpose of this report, suppose we consider them under three plans:

PLAN A. In this plan, provision is made for a core of instructional material. The core is built around a pattern called "Scope and Sequence." The Scope is a classification of the social functions of society, and the Sequence is a series of statements designating the grade level for the study of certain aspects of the social functions. Theoretically the place of these aspects is determined by the maturity of the child. Conventional subject matter lines are disregarded, and materials are drawn from many sources. Objectives are formulated in terms of the social needs of the pupils at the various age levels. In addition to the core material, elective types of subjects in various special interest fields are offered.

PLAN B. Under this plan, curriculum materials are developed in large areas or broad fields rather than through separate subjects. There is frequently new groupings of old subjects under such headings as language arts, social studies, and sciences. Definite effort is made to fuse the curricular mate-

rial, thereby eliminating some narrow conventional subject-matter lines. The organization is more or less logical in nature. The objectives are generally to be found in the nature of the materials themselves.

PLAN C. In this procedure, the content is organized primarily in terms of the child's interests. No definite curriculum is set up; broad outlines may be developed centering around the interest of the children, but the determination of learning activities is considered largely a group matter. New areas open up as study goes forward. Teaching is primarily a matter of providing a suitable environment for the free expression of children, recognizing their interests, and providing ample opportunity for their expression. Objectives are realized as the child's creative expression is released.

A consideration of some of the characteristics of these three plans, followed by illustrations from the programs, should demonstrate the character of the changes in curriculum building.

Plan A provides for a "core area" and "election areas." Provision for the core area is a recognition of the demand for general education providing for the integration of pupils by offering them common experiences in dealing with common problems. Through this core area, society, desiring to assure the continuance of democracy, charges the school with teaching youth: (a) to understand the nature of our evolving culture and the place of the individual in it; (b) to have a knowledge of the way things ought to be, by knowing the values that have been set up by determining a standard for himself; and (c) to develop the power to participate in the evolving culture in which the youth finds himself, directing it in the way he thinks it ought to go. Paralleling the core course are "election areas," organized to meet the different present and future needs of youth. These areas are still largely organized by subjects and are pursued by pupils who have previously manifested interest or capacity in them. They meet the needs for college entrance, avocational purposes, pre-vocational skills, etc. The vocational education of youth remains pretty much as it has been the past decade, "a boat without a rudder."

The desire for a core area has probably led to the search for an adequate frame of reference, by reference to which content for this area might be chosen. The procedure followed in most of the curriculum programs has been to set up first a philosophy of the school in terms of two variables: the needs

and maturity of the child, and modern social conditions. This philosophy is then followed by a set of more definite aims, intended to give the teacher guidance in arriving at definite growth in understanding, attitudes, appreciations, and skills. The problem then arises as to what extent the teacher should be free to select her own materials to achieve these aims. Of course, she may browse, as it were, in the whole field of human culture—historical and contemporary. She may teach in each particular grade what appears to her to be essential; or in some instances, what appears to be her most dominating interest. While this may be satisfactory for a single year, it becomes administratively unwieldy and lacks a common pattern when accumulated year after year. A child exposed to a number of different teachers, each having definite interests which may be valuable within themselves but which when added to the previous experience of the child may not develop sequential growth, comes out of the secondary school without many common experiences. Thus, in order to insure a certain amount of sequential development in harmony with youth's growing abilities and needs and also in harmony with the purposes of society in establishing the schools, definite attempts have been made to outline a scope and sequence pattern.

Of course, there have always been both scope and sequence in the high-school program. Scope has been in terms of the entire range of subjects offered, and sequence has been more or less in terms of the development of definite powers within each of the subjects. Sequence has then been limited to subject development rather than to the total development of the child during the length of stay in school.

The present attempt to define a scope grows out of a rather strong feeling that materials organized under the plan of offering a large range of subjects does not give the child the best opportunity to learn the material in such a way that it will carry over with the greatest ease to normal life situations. That is, the material itself does not possess the essential unity that will enable the child to see easily the essential relationships that exist. There is a desire to so organize the material that the child will increasingly gain an understanding of the issues and problems that confront him outside of the school, as well as growth in power to handle his personal life as he proceeds through school. Curriculum workers, therefore, have searched for those major centers of activity of human endeavor which are common to all times and all peoples. If these can be

discovered, materials can be grouped around them in such a way that the needs of life will be clear to the child, and the possibility for developing power to meet them can be provided. If these can be stated in terms of the fundamental activities of human life, they will likewise enable the curriculum builders to cut across subject-matter lines, providing they can be stated so as not to imply definite subject-matter organization. If this can be done, one step has been made toward the elimination of our artificial divisions of learning. Much interest has been stimulated, and as a result, many definitions or classifications of scope have been prepared. Let us examine a few classifications of scope to see the difference in the categories that have been used.

Virginia, the first state to use this approach in building a curriculum, selected the following nine items. They called them the "Major functions of social living": (1) Protection of life, property, and natural resources; (2) Production of goods and services, and distribution of the returns of production; (3) Consumption of goods and services; (4) Communication and transportation of goods and people; (5) Recreation; (6) Expression of aesthetic impulses; (7) Expression of religious impulses; (8) Education; and (9) Extension of freedom.

With this list as a basis, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, and Texas prepared similar lists of major functions, even though they changed the name somewhat from that title. Texas combined some of those which Virginia had separated, left out "Extension of Freedom," and added "Government." Mississippi kept several of those that Virginia had and gave a few of them a little different emphasis. For instance, "Distribution," "Consumption," "Communication," and "Extension of Freedom" were omitted, and "Making a Home," "Conserving and Improving Material Conditions," "Coöperating in Social and Civic Action," and "Getting a Living" were added.

The scope of the one for Georgia, which is in very tentative form and not at all to be considered complete or official, is very similar to the one used in Mississippi. Arkansas includes the same ideas as Virginia, except the omission of "Extension of Freedom," and the combination of two that Virginia had separated.

Examination of some of the recent city programs will reveal the same kind of classifications. For instance, the one in Birmingham, Alabama, is very similar to the one in Missis-

sippi; the one in Burbank, California, is almost exactly like that in Virginia; Riverside, California, uses the same statement as Virginia, except for the addition of "Integration of the Individual," one which Virginia had in its first chart but later discarded. Riverside also adds another section to the scope which they call "Areas of Human Experiences." These are five of the seven cardinal principles—citizenship, health, home membership, leisure, and vocation. Sacramento, California, has a little different classification. The following are used there: food, clothing, spiritual and aesthetic life, transportation and communication, recreation, creative and artistic expression, congenial employment, education, and government. It is obvious that all of these states and cities are thinking similarly about the nature of the scope. They are taking their ideas from the major functions of human living, and are suggesting the development of problems under those various functions.

Before we move on to a consideration of sequence, it is interesting to illustrate another idea of scope which has been promoted probably by certain leaders of the Progressive Education Association.

Since 1933, the Tulsa, Oklahoma, public school system has been participating in the eight-year study being carried on by the Progressive Education Association. In 1936 a curriculum steering committee was appointed in Tulsa to recommend to the secondary-school staff curriculum adjustments that should be made, and to coördinate the work of all the experimental teachers. This committee, after considering the problem of categories for grouping experiences, selected three areas which were later used by the committee in working out definite materials at Bronxville, where last summer the Progressive Education Association carried on a workshop. These three major areas were as follows: (1) Personal development; (2) Development towards mature participation in a democratic society; and (3) Development of the essential skills of communication and expression.

It is apparent, quickly, that this sort of grouping is different from the kind just described, where the major functions of social life are used. This kind of a grouping places definite emphasis upon certain behavior patterns of the individual and throws into the core statement more the nature of behavior and the psychological maturity of the individual. The Tulsa committee divided these three statements again. "Per-

sonal Development" was divided into physical, mental, and cultural development, and problems were suggested under each of these three classifications. The second statement was divided into four groups, personal-social development, broad social problems, social-political relationships, and economic relationships. The third one was divided into the various kinds of skills needed for success. Around these seven centers, problems were organized and activities suggested for the successful study of a problem.

In turning now to certain characteristics in Plan B, we are struck by some similarities between Plans A and B. Like Plan A, Plan B is interested in a core, but such a core is more likely to be expressed in an enlarged subject—social science or a core course combining social science and English. There are some attempts to express sequence differently, but in the main there is only logical arrangement of material in terms of the avowed function of the subject in achieving the general aims. Sequence, therefore, is still pretty largely a series of sequences, a different one existing for each subject grouping. Unity of subjects is attempted in both plans; but in Plan B, such unity is restricted to the grouping of minor divisions—geography, civics, history, economics—into major divisions—social studies. Election areas and vocational areas are very similar under both plans.

Essentially in Plan B, the core is a course made up largely of materials from the social-science field. English is most frequently combined with it and sometimes science is added. Denver is an example of this where in the East High School for years a number of classes have been running that have been called a core course. According to a recent report from that city, there is now a very definite movement to expand the core course so as to include teachers of other subjects than English and the social studies; and so as to provide increased opportunity for coöperative planning on the part of the teachers to provide materials which will consume more of the child's total time.

The scope, however, is not expressed as "Major Functions of Living" or a similar frame of reference, but reference is made directly to the aims and to a generally understood but unexpressed area of human culture. The more generally used subject groupings are: Language arts, social studies, natural and physical sciences, the arts humanities, etc.

It is obvious that these lists do not have in mind the same

kind of thing that the curriculum programs have where scope and sequence patterns are being used. The programs where curriculum subjects are regrouped have in mind more or less bringing about a certain amount of consolidation of the present existing subjects, retaining the present subject-matter lines by throwing them into larger groups. Such a reorganization is not likely to produce two kinds of things which the basic function organization will produce; namely, a basis for cutting across subject-matter lines, thereby providing more coöperative teaching and the greater possibility of developing an understanding of relationships on the part of the child; and in second place, the definite provision for social orientation in terms of behavior patterns and the problems of human living. It is conceivably more difficult to select problems under the subject matter division that will do these things than to select them under the categories that have to do with the essential relationships of human behavior.

The following courses of study are examples of Plan B: Fort Worth, Texas; Jacksonville, Florida; Indianapolis, Indiana; Florida State; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Pasadena, California; Rock Island, Illinois; South Dakota State; and the State of Texas. (Texas used a scope and sequence pattern but retained major subjects groupings under it.)

In Plan C, the scope is determined by the nature of the individual to be educated and by his needs more than by the nature and needs of the society in which he lives. True, reference is made to his immediate environment, but no definite attempt is made to acquaint the learner with a previously determined area of culture. Reference has been made under the description of Plan A to the method employed in Tulsa, Oklahoma, in determining the scope of experiences desired. This illustration will suffice to illustrate the methods employed in this plan.

The Tulsa, Oklahoma, program also represents an interesting attempt to determine sequence without any definite guides, or without any statement of centers of interest or centers of attention by grades which can be used to determine the problems for those particular levels. General criteria have been set up for the selection of problems, based upon such things as teacher consideration of the maturity of the child, the interests and needs of the child at particular grade levels, and his previous experiences. It is obvious that such a criteria forces upon each individual teacher the need for securing a

great deal of information which she will have difficulty in finding. The alternative to this is to do what Tulsa is considering; namely, to set up by committee action, certain problems for certain years, this determination to be based upon what the teachers in general know about children in the past as they have taught them at the various levels. This sort of an empirical way of determining grade allocations in terms of general notions about pupil growth. While this group points out the possibility of formalizing and standardizing problems by years when they are set up in terms of definite sequential statement, they are open to the charge of planning experiences which will contain much overlapping and which may neglect the development of essential common understanding. To leave the selection of problems by years entirely to the teacher without any guide is to make it difficult for the child to get the kind of sequential growth which he has a right to expect from the school, if the school works co-operatively as it should.

It is obvious that there is considerable difference about the notion of sequence in these three kinds of programs. Some consider sequence to be chronological or spatial. Some have in mind growth in certain intellectual processes or powers. Others consider it to be a matter of understanding casual relationships, and still others believe it to be the understanding and growth in power to deal with an evolving culture in modern society. Very definitely, sequence has to do with arranging successive experiences which the individual undergoes, by which he achieves power, understanding, and appreciation of the experiences of life. Whether it is to be arrived at by the development of certain concepts logically in terms of the subject or the evolving culture itself, or whether it is to grow out of the changes in the various behavior experienced day by day by the child is a matter for profound consideration. One is conscious in these statements of sequence that some of them boast that they have moved away from the subject matter consideration of logic, chronology, or space, but yet the very statements they make betray their interest in these kinds of sequential growth. There is no psychological justification for most of the statements of sequence. The fact that certain kinds of experiences are suggested for the earlier rather than for the later grades is not sufficient to justify the placement psychologically. The justification resides chiefly in the desire on the part of the curriculum builder to provide the child with a set of experiences which have some sequential aspects about them.

On the other hand, there is not enough known about the maturation of the child to cause us to know definitely the kind of sequential growth which should take place. Therefore, we are caught on the one hand by lack of information and on the other hand by the accusation that our very action suggests a set of logical experiences for the child. It is true that we must decide something if the curriculum program is to be built, but that decision need not necessarily stop our thinking. The matter of sequence continues to challenge us. John Dewey recently emphasized its importance in saying:

"Development . . . is a *continuous* process, and continuity signifies consecutiveness of action. Here was the strong point of the traditional education at its best. The *subject-matter of the classics and mathematics involved of necessity*, for those who mastered it, *a consecutive and orderly development along definite lines*. Here lies, perhaps, the *greatest problem of the newer efforts in education*. It is comparatively easy to improvise, to try a little of this to-day and then something else to-morrow and next week. Things are done on the basis of some immediate interest and stimulation but without sufficient regard for what it leads to, as to whether or not something more difficult, setting new demands for information, need for acquisition of greater adequacy in technique and for new modes of skill is led up to and grows naturally out of what is started . . ."¹

Truly nothing is settled but changes are being made. The curriculum field, which cuts across all other fields in school work, offer challenges alike to the intellectual who wishes to think about the nature of content and to the administrator who wishes to organize his school to meet the needs of children in modern life to-day. Our concept of the nature and use of subject matter is changing,² and our ideas about the nature of the school as a social force are being challenged. Secondary education to-day is needing direction. It can get it only in a more adequate study of modern youth and of the needs of the world in which they live. Secondary education must be made dangerous—dangerous to the forces that would destroy democratic government—if it is to justify its desire for universal support; and it must be made to meet the needs of modern youth, if it is to merit their respect.

¹Dewey, J. "The need of a Philosophy of Education." *The New Era*. (London), Vol. XV, No. 6, November, 1934, pp. 214F. [Italics mine.]

²See Leonard, J. Paul. "What Is Happening to Subject Matter?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 13:77-83, February, 1938.

A SIX-FOUR-FOUR PLAN IN OPERATION

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There is rather general agreement that all secondary education is within the province of the public school. There is not the same agreement as to the point where secondary education ends. Professor H. C. Morrison of the University of Chicago suggests that a test to define secondary education can "be found in the school procedure in which the pupil is capable of study but is incapable of systematic intellectual growth except under the constant tutorial presence of the teacher." This test might cause us to pause long enough to wonder just where secondary education begins. That point, however, is irrelevant here. The fact that a large percentage of high-school graduates have not yet learned to grow intellectually without the aid of a teacher (a condition which cannot be denied) has led educators generally to concede that the first two years of the orthodox four-year college should be considered as part of the secondary-school field.

The rapid growth of the public junior college is a practical result of this theory. It is trite but true to say that the junior college has passed the stage of experimentation. In many states it has become an integral part of the public schools.

The development of the junior college has, however, brought to the fore the question of public-school organization. Since the advent of the junior high school many systems have been operated on the six-two-four or the six-three-three basis. The addition of the junior college to either of those groupings produced a series of rather unsatisfactory units both from the view point of administration and of efficiency. The six-four-four plan of organization offers a solution for this problem. Educators who were particularly interested in the extension of the public-junior college perceived the tremendous advantages of the new organization. President Robert M. Hutchins and Professor Leonard V. Koos of the University of Chicago are active exponents of the six-four-four plan. Dr. William H. Kilpatrick of Columbia University has this to say about the new plan: "Taking the country over, the future of the four-year college as we now know it seems doubtful. For many reasons the six-four-four plan of higher education appears the better." One of the pioneer systems to adopt the new plan was that of Pasadena, California. Other California Schools are beginning

to follow the example of Pasadena. Moberly, Missouri, has a four-year junior college but operates on a seven-three-four basis as the seventh grade is still retained by the elementary school.

The six-four-four plan in the Parsons, Kansas, schools was inaugurated in 1935. Before the step was taken, patrons and teachers were asked to discuss freely the proposed change and its implications. The junior college had been in operation since 1923, and had become a popular and permanent part of the local schools.

The school buildings and equipment are ideal for the new type of organization. Two commodious junior high buildings with adequate equipment are in operation; one in the east and the other, the west side of town. An advantage is the fact that no tenth-grade students need go through the business district of the city and through the subway in order to reach school if they are part of the junior-high units. The junior college makes profitable use of the room that became available with the change. On the advice of the superintendent, the board of education voted unanimously for the new type of secondary-school organization.

Numerous questions arose in the minds of the school administration and teachers as to the results of this venture. The organization of the various units involved many difficult problems. Teachers were shifted to care for the tenth-grade classes which now had become an integral part of a four-year junior high school. Curriculum revision came to the fore when question arose as to the courses to be made required or elective in each of the new units. Questions of terminology arose. The upper units is now recognized as a four-year junior college but it has been found necessary to retain a distinction between the former junior college and senior-high years. Accordingly, it has become the custom to refer to the eleventh and twelfth grades as the lower division and to the thirteenth and fourteenth grades as the upper division of the junior college. The lower division students are still called juniors and seniors, while the upper division students are known as freshmen and sophomores—a paradoxical situation which should be remedied as soon as possible. Similarly, the middle four-year units are usually known as junior high schools. In time they will probably be referred to as high schools, with the seventh grade as the freshman year and the tenth grade as the senior year.

The effect of the shift upon the tenth-grade students was observed with interest. At the end of the first year and again

during the second year of the new alignment, data were secured in order to compare the status of the high-school sophomores before and after the change. As the low grade in the former junior college-senior high combination, they had been the step-children in their building. Now they had become the ranking class in each of the junior highs. In number and variety of activities they now ranked far above their former record of achievement. Their scholastic record was also improved. This improvement was not accomplished at the expense of the other junior high grades. In fact, the new four-year high school seems to have additional life and better morale than was found in the three-year school. It is evident that a four-year unit has possibilities which are not inherent in a three or a two-year unit.

One of the supreme objectives of the change in organization was to promote integration between the various units. Faculty committees from the various departments were assigned the task of correlating the courses in the two upper units. The gap which formerly existed between high school and college has been eliminated almost completely. That has been accomplished through an elevation of the type of work done in the eleventh and twelfth grades. A school bulletin which outlined proposed courses of study through the four-year period has also been useful in bringing together more closely the work of the upper and the lower division. No change has been noticeable in the high standard of work which has always characterized the junior college proper.

An attempt has been made to minimize high-school graduation. Where the high-school senior had formerly been given prominence and prestige, that attention has been shifted to the prospective junior-college graduate. Evidence that this policy has been at least tolerably effective is found in the gradually increasing per cent of students who go directly from the twelfth to the thirteenth grade. Approximately seventy per cent of the high-school class of 1937 were enrolled in the upper division of the junior college last September. It is expected that that percentage will be still further increased. High-school diplomas are still presented and will be so long as they are desired by the students concerned. However, the average student in the Parsons schools is now aiming towards graduation from junior college rather than from high school only.

The inter-school activity program has made it necessary to retain two groups of contestants particularly in athletics. Because other schools are not organized on this basis, both

high-school and junior-college teams are maintained. When suitable competition is available, a school team representing the four-year institution in each sport will be organized. The same problem exists in debate and other fields of inter-school competition. This difficulty is the only real disadvantage apparent at this time in the new organization. It should be noted, however, that it is a problem only because other schools have not yet taken the advanced step; the problem is not inherent in the type of organization.

Inspired by the more efficient type of organization and the resulting improvement in administration, a comprehensive program of guidance and activities has been inaugurated. Faculty and students have joined hands in a fine spirit of mutual coöperation to make this new program function satisfactorily in the two upper units of the six-four-four organization. It does seem, however, that the greater simplicity of the new organization has made possible a more efficient operation of these extra-curriculum endeavors.

As may well be assumed, there still remains much to do to amalgamate and integrate the work of the two divisions of the junior college. Certain rights and privileges which high-school students previously possessed have been withdrawn from lower division students, but in turn, they have been given far greater freedom than is ordinarily permitted high-school juniors and seniors. Halls for supervised study are still maintained for lower-division students, but those who average "B" or better during any six-week period are excused from reporting to such study halls during the succeeding six weeks. Whereas the building was formerly closed to high-school students until certain hours on school days, all students are now permitted to enter at will. In general, a much greater freedom is allowed than is characteristic of the modern high school; but this freedom is permitted, not so much to achieve the "college atmosphere," as to instill in each student the need for individual judgment and responsibility. In general, too, students have shown their appreciation of this freedom.

Three years may not be time enough to evaluate a new type of school organization. If, however, the administration and faculty of the Parsons schools were asked now to give their opinion of the new plan, there is no doubt that a large majority would heartily endorse the change. There is no reason to suspect that any other verdict would be rendered by the students and the patrons of the school.

SAFETY EDUCATION IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS

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Why this wave of popular interest in safety education in our high schools? Why add safety instruction to our already overcrowded high-school curriculum? Can it not be taught by the parents, by the police, by motor vehicle authorities, or by someone else? Why take perfectly good school time to teach students to be better drivers, safer swimmers, more careful workmen, or more intelligent housekeepers? The schools are already overburdened; they have too much to do as it is. Is not this safety instruction just a flash in the pan, another fad that has captured the imagination of the public and the schools? These are just a few of the questions that school men have been asking. They deserve thoughtful consideration, for undoubtedly a strong wave of popular interest in safety is sweeping over the country, and the schools are being called upon to help. State and city courses of study are being published. Conferences are being held. Teacher-training courses are being set up. Textbooks are flooding the market. Motion pictures are being distributed throughout the country; and laws requiring the teaching of safety are being enacted. Why all this sudden flare of interest? Is it just a transient movement, or is it something that has come to stay?

Undoubtedly the most important reason is that the American people are for the first time thoroughly alarmed about the growing tide of accidents. As a people we are comparatively slow to act, but once under way we move fast. A yearly sacrifice of over 105,000 lives as a result of accidents, together with over ten million injuries seems too great a price to pay for the progress of the machine age. The American people have determined that accidents must be reduced. They are calling upon the police, safety councils, industries, schools, and all other agencies to help. The strong movement for safety instruction in the high schools is a reflection of the popular demand that something intelligent and constructive must be done about it.

Something intelligent and constructive is being done about it! The growth in high-school safety instruction has been remarkable. Ten years ago relatively little was being done in an organized way to teach traffic safety. To-day over 8,000 schools have organized instruction in traffic safety, with an

even larger number including other phases of safety as a part of various subjects in the curriculum. In 1931 there was one state course of study; to-day there are twenty-two published courses. In four other states, while there are no official manuals, there are well organized programs. Some of the pioneer work in developing state courses was done by Iowa, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. The first courses prepared by these states may look a little crude in comparison to the more recent products such as the Ohio, Indiana, California, and Vermont publications; but they served a useful purpose in getting the work started. According to our records, New Hampshire now has eighty-five per cent of its schools giving instruction; closely followed by Delaware, Indiana, and New Jersey; with Illinois, Vermont, and North Carolina not far behind.

Paralleling this unusual interest on the part of state departments of education, a corresponding impetus has been given to the work in many of our larger cities, such as Detroit, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Omaha, Pittsburgh, and Birmingham. Quite appropriately, our great automobile center, Detroit, has over 35,000 students in traffic-safety classes this year. Another interesting example is in Bergen County, New Jersey, where all of the twenty-eight secondary schools had safety classes during the last year, with over 4,200 students enrolled. But the best response to the needs of safety does not come necessarily from the large city high schools, for Illinois has over three hundred fifty schools, many in rural communities, offering traffic safety; Indiana almost as many, with Ohio not far behind. North Dakota and South Carolina are also moving ahead rapidly, a further demonstration of the facility in which this work can be introduced into states in which there is a predominance of smaller schools.

What should a good traffic-safety program consist of? Where should it be taught? How much time should be devoted to it? These are difficult questions to answer briefly, for practice differs widely, and no one knows the final answer. Let us examine some of the recommendations that merit attention:

1. Instruction should be given to all students before graduation.

2. It should be divided into two parts: the first, preliminary safety instruction, to be given in the eighth or ninth year; and the second, consisting of advanced training, in the eleventh or twelfth year. In Detroit, it is spread over three

years. Obviously, this will depend on the driver's age limit of the state and the subjects in which safety is taught.

3. A minimum of sixteen class hours should be available for the earlier instruction and at least the same amount for advanced work. If driver training is given, this will require additional time. With one period a week for the year, a school can put on a creditable program.

4. Many states include this work in the social sciences. Others provide that time be taken in health and hygiene classes. A few suggest that it be given in science or vocational subjects. There is a danger of having instruction given in too many different subjects in one school.

5. Traffic safety instruction can be divided into two parts; driver education, and driver practice. The first involves classroom and laboratory work; the second, actual road instruction. The latter is being given in a relatively small percentage of the schools.

6. Classes as a rule are being taught by regular teachers and in several cases by principals. Some schools have lectures given by outside experts, sometimes to very large classes. While it may be advantageous to have a few outside speakers, there is danger that this will be overdone.

7. Safety is something that has to be lived rather than memorized. For this reason, students profit most when they can raise questions and take part in discussions. Moreover, they gain much from demonstrations, motion pictures, charts, and actual work on the car itself. The more we can introduce practical exercises and activities that can be carried on during the week, the more they will profit from classroom work. The automobile is very much a part of the every-day life of our students, so that instruction must be given in a vitalized way rather than out of the book.

8. Road instruction is being given in comparatively few schools. While it is easy to get classroom work going, there are many difficulties that must be overcome before starting road practice. This is especially true in the small school. Cars must be secured, liability insurance provided, and a driving instructor must be trained. Moreover, in a large high school - where many students wish to take road instruction, it will often be necessary to add another teacher. Since not more than thirty students can be given road lessons in a day, it is obvious that the number that can be taught in a year is limited.

Automobile clubs and safety councils have been doing some interesting experimental work in this direction, but we are still far from an ideal solution. In Bergen County, New Jersey, it was found that one instructor could give lessons to over four hundred students in a school year, working in as many as fifteen different schools. Supt. Grant Morse of Saugerties, New York, found that he could train one hundred students at an average cost of \$4.50 per student, not including the salary of the teacher.

Some educators feel that road instruction is not a responsibility of the high school; they feel that it should be given by some other agency. Could this same thing not be said, however, about machine shop practice, woodworking, and other manual-training activities? If the schools do not undertake this work, who will? Who will train this great army of millions of young people who are to be the drivers of to-morrow? We know that from sixty to seventy per cent will be driving cars within two years after graduation. Some educators believe that highway patrolmen or police should give some of this road instruction, especially in rural areas. Others feel that it should be the responsibility of the school and that it should be given under experienced teachers. This is a question to be answered finally by experience.

Lest one get an impression that the driver-education program is of little use without road instruction, let us emphasize several points. Even without driving lessons, the classroom and laboratory work, properly taught, is most valuable. It teaches our students the basic facts about the automobile, traffic regulations, and safe driving requirements. It helps to improve the attitudes of our young people toward highway safety. And this is extremely important. While knowledge and information is of value, and manipulative skills are useful, the most important thing to do is to encourage good attitudes, such as courtesy, good sportsmanship, and fair play. Let us get the classroom work going in all schools, and then let road practice come as more satisfactory procedures are worked out.

Is traffic-safety instruction worth-while? There can be no argument on this point. The value of safety education has been clearly demonstrated in the elementary schools. While adult fatalities have increased three-fold, child fatalities have actually shown a decrease. Statisticians tell us that the annual saving of lives of children is about 8,000; that is, 8,000 children are now living who would have been killed last year if the

trend of child fatalities was the same as that of adults. Most of this saving is due to safety education. Our high-school youngsters up to the present time have not had a good record; they have had altogether too many accidents. State and city traffic authorities say that they take too many chances; they tend to speed too much; their attitudes are bad. The school can do much to improve these conditions, for where schools have been carrying on instruction for several years, there has been a noticeable improvement in the accident records of younger operators.

There are many things we must stress. We much teach scientific facts about the effects of alcohol on drivers. We must teach the physical and mental requirements of the good driver. We must show what some of the handicaps to good driving are, and how they can be compensated for. We must stress bicycle safety, for there has been a striking increase in bicycle accidents in recent years. We must include pedestrian safety, as almost fifty per cent of the fatal accidents involve this group. The writer has gone over thirty of the various courses that are now available. Most of these cover the subject quite adequately. When used with one of the many textbooks and other supplementary materials now available, the good teacher will find little difficulty in planning effective instruction.

There is one serious criticism that should be made of the present tendency in high schools. In most of the courses of study traffic safety alone is included. This is unfortunate. The complete high-school program should include all phases of safety—swimming and water safety, fire prevention, home accidents, the school shops, athletics, recreation, and others. This is shown clearly by the chart indicating the high accident records at the high-school age level. Let us not be satisfied with traffic safety alone. This is just one phase of the total accident picture. Let us find time to include all kinds of safety instruction in our high schools.

Adolescence is the period of life for new adventures—swimming, competitive sports, school shops, camping, and driving cars. In these new adventures there will be an element of danger. It becomes the responsibility of the school to give wise counsel and guidance, so that these adventures may be reasonably safe, "leading on," and give happiness and satisfaction.

IS YOUR BUILDING SAFE FROM FIRE?

T. ALFRED FLEMING

Director of Conservation, National Board of Fire Underwriters

Fire burning for five minutes may generate superheated air up to four hundred or five hundred degrees, increasing the temperature as long as the fire continues unmolested. The larger percentage of school fires have their origin in the basement of the building. In such instances the superheated air passes through open stairways into hallways of the different stories of the building, cutting off the possibility for the pupils to escape through regular avenues. As the heated air increases to about one thousand degrees and concentrates in the upper hallways everything burnable is set on fire spontaneously, making all interior means of escape impossible without greatest danger. The antiquated ventilation system in many buildings supplies another avenue for the same superheated air to travel into the classrooms, as well as wall and attic spaces, where it soon concentrates with similar results.

Although in recent years a great improvement has been made in school construction from the standpoint of human safety, we are still faced with the fact that a large part of the nation's school population is housed in structures which, to say the least, are dangerous from the peril of fire. Architects in past years seem to have forgotten the one fundamental feature of fire spread or we would not have so many buildings to-day with the same glaring faults.

It is of interest to note that comparatively few of the people who lost their lives by fire are actually burned. In nearly every case, investigation shows the inhalation of heated gases was the direct cause of death. Many older schools have a large central open stairway extending through hallways from the basement to the top floor. The need of enclosing or otherwise protecting all floor openings and stairways to confine the dangerous gases to their place of origin is imperative. Control the spread of fire and its dangerous elements and you apply common sense to school safety.

It will readily be seen that all the potential fire hazards such as the heating system, fuel room, custodian's quarters, and storage spaces where fires are prevalent should be cut off in such a manner as to make the distribution of superheated air, fumes, and other dangerous results of combustion throughout the building impossible. Suppose we go over your building

and find, as we will in so many cases, exactly such hazardous conditions? What should be done? First, cut off all chances for dangerous gases to reach hallways, class rooms, or other parts of the building for no human being can live breathing hot air of four hundred degrees or over. Second, if possible, build the heating plant and other dangerous basement sections into a fireproof structure with opening only to the outside, placing a fire alarm inside to give immediate notice of any fire emergency. Third, if the foregoing is not feasible, place a standard sprinkler system at least in the basement and dangerous areas.

While we are discussing the danger of fire from basements, look under your fire escapes. See if you do not find underneath these exits basement windows of ordinary glass. While the fire is spreading upward through the center of the structure it is also attacking windows to the outside. Ordinary glass breaks with the flash of flame and the fire envelopes the lower part of the fire escapes so that they are rendered useless in an emergency. Every window underneath fire escapes or ten feet on either side should be supplied with wired glass set in metal frames and arranged so they cannot be left open, which would defeat the purpose of the protection desired.

Effective evacuation of the building is, of course, a matter only possible through careful planning of fire drill procedure and continuous practice under any and all conditions which might prevail. After the first or second fire drill in the fall when new class arrangements have been necessary, no notice should ever be given to teachers or others of a contemplated fire drill. It should be called on any or all occasions, when students are in assembly, changing classes, or with certain exits barred, so that the general fire drill plan can operate efficiently under any fire or panic emergency.

This brings up the question of sufficient and available exit doors from the building, as well as adequate and easy exit to fire escapes, if there are any. Many older structures have an insufficient number of exit doors or they are located where they would be of little value. All exit doors should open outward and be equipped with panic bolts which should be tested daily. All obstructions in hallways should be removed and all inside doors made to open with the line of exit travel.

Some special hazards in addition to those already named are the manual training, physics and chemical laboratory, cafeteria, domestic science, and such departments, and these in-

volve the human element. For this reason, all students as well as teachers should be taught the possible hazards in each division. After all, no school can maintain safe surroundings without a full consciousness of the hazards involved and the entire coöperation of the student body. The danger of fire and shock from electricity depends very largely on the human element. If the system is installed and maintained under the regulations of the National Electrical Code, it is ninety-nine per cent safe. Where custodians, teachers, or students are permitted to make adjustments or extensions to the installation it may be one hundred per cent dangerous both to life and property. Overloaded circuits, use of substandard cords and appliances, and increased or plugged fuses are but a few of the many electrical danger signals. A careful check of the entire electric system should be made periodically by an expert.

Concealed spaces under stairs, auditorium platform, closets, and blind attics are almost always a source of danger. These are usually inaccessible and entirely without means of ventilation. Accumulation of unburned gases in these obscure spaces frequently results in an explosion or back-fire. Storage of old furniture, stage scenery, old records, etc., in these areas is but to invite disaster.

In order to assist the school authorities in the maintenance of safe conditions, the National Board of Fire Underwriters has developed and distributes without charge the "Self-Inspection Blank for Schools." This inspection guide is so designed and worded that the salient features which should be checked are readily interpreted and unfavorable conditions are made apparent to the responsible school officials. This form has been adopted and approved by the National Association of Public School Business Officials and carries the endorsement of the International Association of Fire Chiefs. Over fourteen hundred cities are at present using this blank and as a result of expert periodic inspection and reinspection, innumerable fire hazards are removed and general maintenance improved. A pamphlet entitled "Fire Prevention and Protection as Applied to the Public and Parochial Schools," explanatory of the questions developed through the use of the inspection blank, is available; also a booklet entitled "Construction of School Buildings and Improvement of Existing Structures" may be secured on request.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AS A PREPARATION FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

E. H. FISHBACK

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The first person I encountered as I started out to ask senior high-school teachers what the junior high school could do to prepare pupils better for senior high-school work was a teacher of Latin. Without hesitation, she answered, "Better preparation in Latin and English." The head of the mathematics department indicated no uncertainty at all in suggesting that better preparation in mathematics and better study habits would be welcome. The commercial teacher wanted better spellers. So the story continued through all the academic and vocational subjects.

A somewhat different opinion was found when the dean of boys and the dean of girls were consulted. Above all they should like to have are young people who are well-behaved. Regular school attendance, industry, courtesy, social responsibility, and civic consciousness ranked high in their thinking. The principal of a senior high school has an outlook that includes all the views just stated and others in addition. Who is right?

The mathematics teacher and the others are right in asking that the junior high prepare pupils for doing the work given in the senior high school. But, like the six blind men who examined parts of the elephant and all came to different conclusions, these teachers have but a limited notion as to what is involved in preparation for such a school.

There are a few assumptions that we must accept before we begin a definite consideration of what the junior high can do to prepare pupils for senior high. We must assume that the *whole* child is to be educated and trained; that education and training given in the senior high must be worth-while; that pupils vary in interests, abilities, attitudes, and habits; and that a senior high must be a socialized school in contrast to the old scholastic type of institution that was the forerunner of the modern high school. Let us assume then that we have a modern high school that is guided largely by such philosophy as that advocated in the *Functions of Secondary Education*. The junior high school may prepare pupils for such a school in several very definite ways.

1. The junior high school can maintain a system of school

activities that will be a foundation training for the activities of the senior high. Clubs, orchestras, school papers, and student councils in junior high are not mere busywork for students. In many schools these have been incorporated into the work of the school day as an activities period. Principals and teachers have found that this period contributes much to the morale and citizenship of the school.

2. The junior high trains pupils in supervised and directed study. Now we approach a topic that practically all teachers in high school would agree is important. The junior high has been criticized because it has study that has been supervised too much. In other words, pupils have cultivated the habit of too much dependence upon the teacher. The junior high schools can correct this weakness by scheduling a program that will call for independent study as well as directed or supervised study.

While the pupils are in the junior high, much can be done during these supervised periods to help the child form correct habits of study that will aid him not only in high school but in college and after life. From the beginning, the junior high has advocated the lengthened period and the necessity for study with the teacher in charge of the subject.

3. The junior high emphasizes the education of the whole child. It is the last institution of the public schools that does this in a large way. The leaders in the junior high movement have consistently held to the notion that it is in no sense a vocational school, because of the age of the children concerned, although it does teach some subjects that appear to parents as vocational.

In our population at the present time there are too many persons who look to the high school, and the junior high to a certain extent, to educate persons in such a way as to enable them to acquire money. They have little use for culture, recreation to financial and social success. This doctrine is familiar to all who live in industrial centers. It tends to dwarf the lives of boys and girls. If the early specialization that this view suggests were started in the late elementary grades and carried on through the junior high, the pupils would be poorly prepared for high school.

4. Through the use of exploratory and tryout courses along with ability grouping, junior high acts as a guidance center in acquiring much valuable information about the interests and abilities of students. This information is used to get pupils into the right courses in high school. All infor-

mation of this nature should be sent to the senior high school at the time the pupils are transferred to that school. The junior high was founded upon the firm belief that there are, and should be, great individual differences in adolescent children, and further that these differences should be recognized in elective offerings, ability grouping, daily assignments, standards for promotion, and differences in method of teaching and discipline.

5. What shall we say of this part of the junior high school's responsibility in regard to scholarship? Shall we take the extreme position of "freedom for domination of the senior high schools" as our objective? In contrast to this shall we consider the junior high school as merely a preparatory school for the upper school? It requires a little background of history to understand the situation exactly between the two schools at the present time. The high school as a whole was formerly, of course, a much more selective institution than it is now, enrolling a group of pupils with predominately academic interests and abilities. Changes in social conditions and changes in our educational philosophy have drawn attention to the needs of great numbers of boys and girls whose education must follow other than academic lines. The senior high has been only in part responsive to these changes. Its teachers, themselves trained in the academic tradition, have openly disapproved other types of education and achievement than those of an intellectual nature.

There are large groups of boys and girls in our junior and senior high schools for whom the curriculum offered in most places does not make any appeal. A preliminary study of the CCC camps, reported by Shorling and McClusky, shows not only a low degree of school achievement in the subjects that the schools have endeavored to teach, but a deep antipathy on the part of many of the men for any and all things pertaining to schools. These groups of students are maladjusted while they are in the schools and they are troubled and humiliated by the fact that they can not keep step with their more able classmates. A brief visit in almost any eighth-grade classroom will reveal certain types of students who are woefully ill-adapted to the work they are trying to do. Why not put the problem the other way, and say that the work they are trying to do is not adapted to the boys and the girls? This is the fact. The recruits for the CCC camps come largely from these persons.

There is also a difference in the teaching methods of the

two schools. In general, the senior high has advocated and practiced the logical presentation of subject matter. The junior high has recognized the advantage of the psychological approach. Its work has tended to become organized in terms of pupils' interests and needs as learners. The tendency has been for the senior high to judge the junior high in terms of logical achievement. Accomplishment in general mathematics, for example, it tests in terms of a knowledge of logically arranged information and skills; achievement in the social studies it interprets on the basis of historical and geographical facts acquired. The junior high and the senior high should be parts of a coördinated school system. It becomes necessary for the senior high to admit the pupils from the junior high schools. The high school is entitled to know what training pupils have received in the junior high, and then the high school must take these pupils where they find them and continue their education.

Now, let us who deal with the junior high school make a rather frank confession. We have not done all that we could do to prepare pupils in certain skills for the senior high school. I believe that the complaints of the teachers of the high school that many pupils do not know the fundamental processes in mathematics, that they read and spell rather poorly, and that their knowledge of the elements of grammar is defective, are well taken.

What does it profit a pupil in the junior high school if he studies general mathematics and cannot multiply and divide? Of what benefit is the study of general science if the child cannot read? Ability groupings, supervised study, try-out courses, activities, and other desirable features of a junior high school are very important, but they can scarcely make up for some of the weaknesses in scholarship just mentioned.

Let us admit readily that we can do much more in the fundamental processes of mathematics, spelling, reading, and the simple elements of grammar. Of course, every junior high school teaches the subjects just noted, but they are taught in such a way that many pupils escape a mastery of them. We may call the methods used the shotgun methods as some pupils are hit and some missed. Many are missed.

Here is a suggestion for junior high schools. Elementary schools and high schools have made large use of individualized unit plans of work known variously as the Winnetka plan, Dalton plan, Morrison plan, and other individualized forms of instruction. Under these plans the child himself begins a systematic mastery of the elements of the tool subjects. He knows

how much he has accomplished and how much he has to do. Certainly the fundamental processes of arithmetic, reasonable spelling achievement, and reading ability can be given to practically all pupils of junior high age, but we shall have to change to some unit plan of instruction in these tool subjects and not use the wholesale teaching methods that have prevailed. Smaller class groups will be a necessity. These unit or individualized plans of instruction need not interfere with any of the cherished ideals of the junior high. Indeed, they will serve to carry out the need for individual differences in children upon which the junior school was founded.

We have been considering, in more or less abstract manner, the question of preparation for high school. In terms of boys and girls, what kind of young people are we sending into the senior high?

The junior high is sending all kinds of students. Our democracy forbids our doing otherwise. They have been guided to select the course suitable for them in the senior school. They have learned how to study in directed-study work in the junior high. They know how to coöperate with others in clubs, student councils, and other school activities. These boys and girls have not been subjected to early specialization, although they have had elective subjects and general exploratory courses that have appealed to their special interests. They have continued the education that appeals to the whole child, because they must continue to live as an integrated personality.

These boys and girls will differ markedly in scholastic accomplishments as we send them into the senior high school, but every one of them should know at least the fundamental processes of arithmetic, have reasonable spelling ability, be able to read, and know the simple elements of grammar. Above these minimum standards will be a large majority of boys and girls who are well prepared to do the work of the senior high school.

As the door of the senior high schools opens to receive these young people, the boys and girls, and their parents have a right to expect the senior school to provide courses of study that will care for the interests and abilities of this heterogeneous group. Future farmers, college students, industrial workers, professional groups, homemakers, and the service group, and all others have a right to a training for their own particular needs.

The junior high school is a product of the emphasis on social living, and while it stresses participation, activity, and social procedure, it also strives to give a foundation training for the specialized courses of the senior high. The junior high is not merely a preparatory school for the senior high, but it is definitely obligated to prepare students for a high school that is organized along modern lines.

YOUTH TALKS TO THE SCHOOL EXECUTIVE

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The Legislature of Pennsylvania recently passed an act which raises compulsory attendance of schools to the age of seventeen in 1938 and to eighteen in 1939. At least 1,000,000 boys and girls are affected by this legislation. As many young persons will be forced to return to school in September, a big problem faces the administrators of the state. A few years ago the Committee on Orientation of the Department of Secondary-School Principals warned administrators that this problem must be faced in the not distant future.

On February 4, 1938, at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, the state branch of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association began the first step in trying to solve the problem. A coöperative conference of youth and administrators was held on the topic, *The Adequacy of the Program of Secondary Education to Meet the Needs of Youth*. The conference used a technique that will be tried in similar meetings throughout the state.

Although all sessions of the conference were interesting, the youth meeting was the most stimulating. About seventy young people representing a cross section of students of high schools in the vicinity of Harrisburg and of pupils who had withdrawn from school constituted the youth panel. These boys and girls were in no way "conditioned" for the occasion. They had not even seen their adult moderator, Dorothy Waldo Phillips, Lansdowne, Pennsylvania. Mrs. Phillips quickly put the young people at ease and then turned the panel over to Miss Marjorie Holly, a high-school student of Harrisburg. After that, with the exception of not over two hundred words by Mrs. Phillips, the discussion was conducted for eighty minutes entirely by the students. The capability of Miss Holly as a presiding officer is a tribute both to her own ability and to the training that she has received in her school.

Asked to consider such questions as: "What do we want in high school?", "What changes would we like to see?", and "What is lacking in school?", the students entered the discussion with a freedom that is hard to visualize by one who was not present. Not once did a speaker take advantage of the opportunity offered for venting personal ill-will toward school situations that several had found unpleasant. The real pur-

pose of this paper is to give examples of pupil remarks from notes taken during the session. Most of the remarks have been cut considerably as the writer preferred to reproduce sentences accurately, rather than to summarize long statements.

Girl: Our problem now is what to do for those who are forced to return to school. Can't we do something to make them want to be back instead of feeling that they are forced back?

Boy: Can't the school be organized to help us *want* to do things instead of making us feel that we are forced to do them?

Boy: Often we do not see the value of our courses, and no one tells us. Why don't schools see the value of getting us to *want* things?

Boy: I wish teachers could get down on our level and see the problems from our point of view. We have interests, but school doesn't seem to know it. They ought to see what we really can do and help us to do it.

Girl: I think the schools should get a jolt out of the fact that extra-curriculum work is more interesting than subjects. Why? Because in extra-curriculum things the teacher looks for our interests, but in class they teach what they are told to teach. Extra-curriculum is for *us*; school is for subjects.

Boy: Freshmen are all at sea. School is a big maze. Guidance is too formal. How can one do something about a thing he knows nothing about?

Girl: We have a new guidance program in our school, quite personal, and the woman in charge is splendid. It's doing a lot of good.

Boy: We have advisers to help us choose, but the difficulty is that often they won't let us take what we want.

Boy: They won't let us go outside of set courses. An example of what I mean is that you can't take typing in a general course.

Girl: I'm doing stenography, and I'd like to study art, but I can't take it. Our school doesn't let us do those cultural things we want to do if we are in a commercial course. They think, if we are preparing to work, we can't be interested in culture.

Boy: Our school is organized on lines that divide the students. If you are academic, you're rich and smart; if you're manual, you're dumb; but I think often the manual is as smart as the academic.

Girl: We had no guidance and we had no speech. We had no help in talking to people. We are weak in conversation and discussion.

Boy: I wish schools could give more individual and personal guidance. Life is as big a maze when we finish school as it was when we started.

Boy: If you fail in school, even though you try, that hurts you with employers.

Girl: One reason we leave school is that there is so much stress on marks and so much failure. We hate to fail; but after a while we get callous, and then we quit. We have classes where more fail than pass.

Girl: In our school, college preparatory is the strong part. It's good for those going to college, but for the rest of us it is not. Many drop out because school does not fit their needs. We want education to prepare us for life; not for a college we're not going to.

Boy: Why do we quit? Because we're not going to college, and that's what high school prepares for. We want to prepare for life.

Boy: Why can't a college-preparatory course be made that has value if you're not able to go to college when you get through high school?

Girl: We often know what we want to do, and the school knows, but they don't let us. I'd read all the junior English books but two before I became a junior, but I had to take junior English, and it was a loss.

Girl: I want to write. I've asked for journalism, but the schools say that's not English. Then why can't I get guided help and study journalism down at the newspaper office?

Boy: If classical students took manual, they'd probably flunk. Then why do manual students have to take classical subjects? We want school to prepare us for life.

One cannot peruse these remarks without being impressed by the degree to which they strike at targets aimed at by the reports on *Issues* and *Functions* of Secondary Education. Without using a professional vocabulary, the students discussed differentiation of offerings, vocational and general education, adapting offerings to needs, the worth of cultural subjects in the curriculum, methods, recognition of interests, the purpose of guidance, preparation for life, and a program valuable to all youth of the community.

In the afternoon, an adult panel discussed the program in which they had seen the young people participating earlier in the day. To this panel had been invited representatives of such state organizations as the Federation of Women's Clubs, Pennsylvania Congress of Parents and Teachers, Pennsylvania Conference on Social Work, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Federation, State Grange, American Federation of Labor, Committee for Industrial Organization, Chamber of Commerce, Pennsylvania Real Estate Association, Pennsylvania Retailers Association, and the Public Education and Child Labor Association. The adult panel agreed that in the main the expressed desires of the youth panel were reasonable, promised coöperation in the efforts to create in Pennsylvania a secondary-school system responsive to the needs of all normal young people in the state, and considered in general terms what contributions each represented group might make to the school program. No specific commitments were made, as indeed they could not be by the uninstructed members of the panel.

The conference closed with a dinner meeting for representatives of the schools, at which was presented the next step in the Pennsylvania program; namely, the study of the problems in small discussion groups of principals and faculty members in all parts of the state. This study has already begun with the coöperation of the Committee on Planning of the Department of Secondary-School Principals. Beginning with the *Issues and Functions*, it will attempt to formulate a practical program that will be put into operation next fall.

MENTAL HYGIENE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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One million of the children in the public schools at the present time will go to hospitals for mental treatment. This is more than the number which will graduate from colleges and universities. It is agreed that one-half of the mental cases can be prevented by a proper educational program which can be brought about by a coöperative plan between parents and teachers. Prevention is the only solution to the problem of crime and mental disease.

Mental health is nothing more than a state of mind which enables an individual to get along with his fellow men and solve his problems. A healthy mind and an unhealthy mind both have the same origin; and it is not very difficult to educate an individual to be insane—to use a mental disorder to solve his social problems.

The secondary schools should have an educational program in which the social development of the student is given much significance; a program of social guidance which will aid the student in developing social poise and balance.

A period in the school curriculum might be designated as "The Principal's Guidance Hour," where topics on social behavior of practical importance could be discussed. Manners, conversational ability, a sense of humor, relative values, emotional control, and personal appearance are subjects to be considered from the standpoint of their psychological significance. The importance of such an hour would be the study of character traits with the attitude of self-criticism and a desire for self-improvement.

Social committees could be organized which would carry into practice the theoretical discussion of conduct. Such committees should be composed entirely of students who would plan the assembly programs, teas, parties, dances, and holiday entertainments. Also, on such special occasions as Thanksgiving, a welfare committee might be responsible for the distribution of gifts or food to the poor in the community. This would give them the stimulation and joy of working together outside of the classroom and would impress upon them the importance of happenings which are not entirely connected with the school.

A faculty-student committee on social relations could serve an important function. Membership on such a committee should be considered one of the highest honors. This committee could be composed of five or six members of the faculty and student group respectively. The purpose of the committee should be to have closer contact outside the class room. Meetings could be held each week for the purpose of discussing the welfare of the school.

Each year some social events could be planned to which a large group of students would be invited. There is no reason why it would not be possible to have a student and faculty luncheon occasionally. At such a luncheon students and teachers could be seated alternately at long tables, and here develop a friendly atmosphere, which would go far in socializing the shy and indifferent individual.

An organization to give students a part in the government of the school, a student publication, and a school play, all foster a feeling of fellowship and good sportsmanship. In all school activities, it should be the purpose of the teachers in the secondary schools to keep in mind the harmonious development of the pupil as a member of the school community.

Teachers in the secondary schools must not forget that their students are dealing constantly with things which are strange and unknown to them. Many of these things are not only strange but many times they are very frightening, and at times the pupil may feel that he is being threatened. All of these things must be met by a good physical condition on the part of the student, and understanding and love on the part of the teacher. Food, clothing, and love are things which parents and teachers must give to boys and girls; and they are the tools which these boys and girls will use to make for themselves a place in social life. As they advance toward maturity, they will discard those habits which are a handicap and will replace them with better ones. In this way they will adjust themselves to society.

The most important thing a teacher can do in the secondary-school program is to make an earnest effort to secure a sympathetic understanding of the relationship which is present between the conduct of students and their environment. If the teacher can secure such a better understanding, it will go far in helping students become mature, self-reliant, and efficient human beings.

A HIGH-SCHOOL ORIENTATION PROGRAM

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The course in orientation in the Sacramento, California, Senior High School is the direct result of coöperative planning by teachers and students. Two years ago when the seniors were asked what the high school should offer which was not included in the curriculum, there were two answers: (1) the incoming students should be given all the information about the schools which they need in order to make the most of high-school experience, and (2) emphasis should be given to the discussion of problems of personality. We had assumed that sophomores automatically discovered the schools, and that we discovered the students, as they entered the schools! We had also assumed that a study of personality was too difficult for high-school students. We were mistaken in both instances.

Following these suggestions from students, a faculty committee was set up for developing the kind of course which seemed to be needed. This committee constantly conferred with students in order to secure their viewpoint. The present course in student orientation is the result. Essentially this is a course in group counseling whereby the students and the school become acquainted. The teachers in charge of the course constitute a working committee for modifying the course as new needs are discovered.

The following units indicate the general nature of the course. Each unit is worked out in full and each student is given a syllabus and each teacher a guidebook. The general topics covered by the various units in the course are:

General information about the school plant.

Traffic rules and regulations within and outside the school.
Attendance, absence, tardiness, readmission, etc.

Use and care of school property—books, lockers, desks,
etc.

Organization and administration of the school—officials,
functions of offices, organizations, etc.

Differentiation—how students enroll in classes.

Student activities—student body, classes, programs, etc.
Parliamentary practice used throughout the school.

School programs—kinds, purposes, planning, and evalua-
tion.

The report card—its nature and purpose.

How to study—why study, conditions favorable, study techniques, and budgeting of time.

Use of library—ten sessions are held in the library.

Subjects offered by the school—purpose of each, requirements for graduation, planning individual programs, etc.

Continuing education after high school—universities and colleges, extension courses, adult education opportunities, and travel.

Vocations—the workaday world, information about jobs, job opportunities near Sacramento, etc.

Student organizations—kinds, purposes, avocations.

Personality—its meaning, how to modify, personality chart, personal traits, etc.

Apart from instruction in the above units all information possible is gathered about new students in order that it may be used in providing for their immediate needs. English for poor readers, for instance, is that which teaches boys and girls how to improve their skill in reading. If a student has not acquired the elementary principles, there is little use to send him into higher mathematics. It is important to know the strong and the weak points of a student in order that poor as well as outstanding students may be properly adjusted to the school environment.

This orientation course is now in its first year. Many changes in it have been made and others are predicted as new materials and techniques are discovered. At present it is a one-semester course, but there are indications that the immediate problems of high-school students are so numerous and complex that the course should be extended.

GUIDANCE PRACTICES

Transition from high school to college is a step often difficult for students. Thousands of students have found the adjustment to college requirements too difficult to make. Recognizing this problem, the Research Division of the NEA has undertaken a study of ways and means of bridging the gap between high school and college. The report of this study will appear as one of the *Research Bulletins* of 1938. Actual guidance practices in sixteen hundred high schools and admission and guidance practices in four hundred colleges are being summarized from questionnaire reports.

A FUSION COURSE IN SOCIAL STUDIES

HARRY J. LINTON

Director, Secondary Education, Schenectady, New York

During the year 1935, plans were laid for a revision of the social-studies program in Schenectady, New York. Frequent discussions were held with groups of teachers, principals, the superintendent of schools, and laymen of the community concerning the type of social-studies program Schenectady should have. The services of Dr. Donnal V. Smith of New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York, were secured to aid in preparing the way for the careful study of plan and objectives.

In the fall of 1936, Dr. Smith was asked to offer an extension course in curriculum organization in the social studies at Schenectady. Nearly all of the teachers of social studies in the junior and senior high schools participated in the course on one of three bases; namely, for credit, as members of committees to revise the program, or as auditors.

The first semester was spent in studying the newer philosophies of the social studies. During the second semester the teacher divided into groups and began preparing the courses of study. The result of the year's work was that the complete program of social studies was reconstructed for grades seven to eleven.

The most important step in reconstructing the program was the development of an adequate philosophical basis upon which to erect the super-structure of the program. While this philosophy is well set forth in Dr. Smith's book, *Social Learning*, (Scribner's), it seems desirable to express briefly here a few definite points of the philosophy. The first suggests that the most important social experiences of the curriculum should be had in the social-studies program. Why have a social-studies program or call it such, if it does not have as its point of emphasis, the social experience of the pupil? If this is to be accomplished, the study must be woven around certain large areas of a common social experience. This suggests a unit organization. Again if social growth and social experience, are to be the heart of a program, facts cannot be learned for the mere sake of learning them, but must be learned in connection with the situation which demands their use. To my mind, these two points make useless and impossible the organization of subject matter in social studies in any such form

as History A, B, and C; and as Geography, Economics, and Civics. Social problems do not present themselves in such categories in life. Why should the pupil attempt to learn them in this way? In other words, the aim is to substitute the psychological organization for the logical.

The second general consideration has to do with the chronological approach to the teaching of history. Historians disagree as to the efficacy of this procedure in teaching secondary-school pupils. In the plan adopted in Schenectady, separate units are set up along the line of actual social experience which arise within or near the experience of the pupils, but without respect to chronology *between* units. Chronology may be developed *within* units. For example, the study of Unit VI of Grade VIII entitled, "Our National Community" starts with the settlement of the country and leads through to the consideration of conditions in America to-day.

The organization of the five-year curriculum in social studies is suggested by the unit titles listed below:

SEVENTH GRADE

Unit I	Through the Day in My New School
" II	My Home Group
" III	Leisure Time
" IV	Mine and Yours
" V	My Value to Society
" VI	My Social Ideals
" VII	My Community

EIGHTH GRADE

Unit I	Our Community
" II	Community Service
" III	How Our Community Does Its Work
" IV	How Our Community Forms Its Opinions
" V	How Our Community Is Connected to Other Communities
" VI	Our National Community

NINTH GRADE

Unit I	American Nationalism
" II	The National Communities of Western Europe
" III	The National Communities of Northern Europe
" IV	The National Communities of Eastern Europe
" V	The National Communities of the Far East
" VI	Population Problems
" VII	Trade in the World Community
" VIII	Coöperation in the International Community
" IX	Social Control

TENTH GRADE

Unit I	Culture Origins
" II	Communication
" III	Religion
" IV	Town and Country Life
" V	Social Conflict and Coöperation
" VI	Golden Ages of Culture
" VII	Development of Autocracy
" VIII	Autocracy Challenged

ELEVENTH GRADE

Unit I	The Machine Age
" II	Changed Living Standards: Town and Country Life
" III	Economic Changes of the Machine Age
" IV	Industrialized Nationalism
" V	Industrialized Imperialism
" VI	The International Problem

No attempt was made to reorganize the twelfth year where American History continues to be taught as formerly. One reason for leaving the twelfth year was that many teachers wished to preserve the narrative of American history for the last year before high-school graduation.

The units are organized in such a manner as to promote pupil interest. The format is as follows: A brief introductory note heads each unit for the purpose of establishing a *readiness* for the study of the unit. The subject-matter outline appears in a column on the right side of the page, while on the left side is a list of suggested activities that may be carried on by pupils either individually or in groups, and which contribute to the study of the unit. At the end of each section of the outline, there is a full bibliography of reading references pertaining to the section.

The activities suggested above include field trips, reports before the class, art projects, construction projects, and any other type of activity which challenges the interests of pupils and contributes to the understanding of the unit.

Needless to say, such a program is different from existing programs. Likewise it requires different teaching and learning skills. Teachers must plan more carefully and more thoroughly than when using traditional curriculum materials. This program demands the teaching of study skills. Pupils must be taught how to use reference books rather than basic textbooks. They must be taught to take notes, to make outlines, to organize materials, read, and to give reports before the class. All these skills contribute to the general education of the pupil.

Libraries must accompany the successful use of this program. The single textbook can no longer suffice. The pupil should be led to search through all available literature, both current and standard, to secure the information needed for the successful completion of the work.

INTEREST IN LEARNING

F. K. SPAULDING

Harvard Graduate School of Education

"Interest in learning" may mean two somewhat different kinds of interest. It may mean the interest that a teacher tries to develop when he or she wants to get pupils to study a particular lesson. We ordinarily think of that kind of interest as motivation. Or it may mean the interest that pupils acquire as a result of studying a particular lesson or series of lessons. The latter interest grows out of learning. It is this type of interest, rather than the interest that serves chiefly as motivation for learning in the first place, that I should like to discuss.

There have been two educational movements in recent years which have paid particular attention to the development of pupils' active interests. One has been the progressive education movement, which has sought, among other things, to foster "creative expression" on the part of pupils, as a means of encouraging boys and girls to develop independently whatever special talents they may possess. The other is the movement for the development of so-called "leisure-time interests"—chiefly hobbies of various sorts.

The kind of teaching sponsored by both these movements has a number of weaknesses. Perhaps the most serious criticism which can be made of it is that it results in interests which are often no more than an escape from thinking, from normal social relationships, and from the realities of the everyday words. Thus the "creativity" which progressive schools emphasize is almost always creativity in art, music, or literature; the possibility of being creative in science, social relationships, mathematics, mechanics, or vocational work is seldom recognized. And the hobbies which the recreation movement has developed are mostly physical hobbies—interest in sports of various kinds, gardening, and the making of objects for use or ornament. Neither movement has recognized the whole range of people's normal activities as possible sources of interest, or has set out to make boys and girls interested in a wide variety of those activities.

I shall not take time to defend the thesis that boys and girls ought to have varied interests—intellectual, vocational, and social, as well as physical and aesthetic. We accept that thesis the moment we set up a school which attempts to introduce its pupils to art and the social studies, to science and pupil self-government, to athletics and practical arts. What needs more definite consideration at the moment is the question of why we have not succeeded in encouraging those varied interests and what we must do if we are ever to encourage them.

We have not interested our pupils; first, because we have acted as if knowing about a subject were all that is necessary to produce interest in it. We have taught facts and more

facts chiefly because *we* thought they were important, without much regard for whether our pupils saw any sense to them even after they had learned them.

This is not to say that a person who knows little or nothing about a subject is likely to become more interested in that subject than a person who knows a lot about it. On the contrary, the only lasting interest is based on knowledge and still more knowledge, so that the effort to develop pupils' interest offers no excuse for being satisfied with lack of knowledge. But unless knowledge strikes home to the learner in ways which are appealing to *him*, the facts lead only to an abortive "so what?"

We have not interested our pupils; second, because we have assumed that the only "respectable" interests are the kinds of interests the scholar or the artist favors. Thus, when we have taught literature we have emphasized who wrote what, and whether what he wrote is "great," instead of discovering first whether our pupils like what he wrote and leading them to want more of it. When we have taught art or music we have insisted on making pupils draw or sing or play an instrument, instead of giving them a chance to see beautiful art or hear beautiful music. When we have taught science we have tried to turn boys and girls into laboratory technicians instead of into intelligent users of the products of science that lie all about them. The fact is that the value of an interest rests not in its being scholarly but in its being stimulating. The boy who gets really excited about it may learn more from a magazine of outdoor sports than the boy who reads what he thinks he ought to read will learn from the *Atlantic Monthly*.

We have not interested our pupils; finally, because we have shut our eyes to what they are interested in in spite of us. A recent study of the interests of boys and girls of high-school age shows that those boys and girls have recognizable and well-developed "patterns" of interests, and that the patterns change gradually as the pupils advance grade by grade through school. But the study shows also that the things in which boys and girls are normally interested have little in common with the things they are taught in school. Perhaps, no study was needed to reveal these facts. Every teacher who recalls his own school experience will no doubt remember occasions when he wanted to know about something and asked about it in class, only to be told that there was no time to talk about it just then—it wasn't in the course.

If these are the principal reasons for our failure to awaken pupils' active interests, what ought teachers to do to encourage their pupils' active interest in learning?

They ought *not* to assume that the way to get interest is to wait until their pupils show some "spontaneous interest," and then to teach whatever that interest suggests. There is no such thing as a truly spontaneous interest. Every interest that a boy or girl has comes to him originally from outside—

if not from the school, then from the movies, the radio, the funnies, the gang swapping yarns on the corner, and the stories that fathers tell of what they used to do when they were boys. It is a poor teacher who will let what he teaches be dictated by the notions his pupils get from everyone except himself. The teacher who is worth his salt starts interests; he does not wait for them to be started by some chance incident over which he has no control.

He starts interests most often by making no secret of his own interests. There is no getting round the need of his having interests of his own if he is to awaken interests in others. Granting that he does have such interests, he sets out to make his pupils feel them as he does. He recalls how he himself first became interested, and he provides for his pupils the same experiences—or experiences like them—that gave him his original thrill.

Also, he encourages every promising interest that his pupils exhibit, whether or not it is exactly like his own. To do that, he is willing to spend time answering his pupils' honest questions, or helping them to find answers, even though the questions are outside the range of his own teaching. When questions come up that are in the range of his teaching, he seizes on them as a gift of the gods and helps his students to find answers to them *now*, even though, in order to do so, he must teach about the War of 1812 before, instead of after, he has taken up the *Ordinance of 1787*.

Finally, he keeps watch on what his pupils do when they are not in school. In the games they play, the stories they read, the hobbies they take up and perhaps drop again, are his best clues to what they want to learn about or to activities which he can get them to want to learn more about. He does not assume that everything boys and girls do is worth doing and should be made forthwith a part of the school curriculum. He does recognize that much that individual boys and girls are interested in of their own accord may develop, with encouragement and guidance, into talents which any school may be proud to have fostered.

To do all these things will help, rather than hinder, in getting pupils to learn in the first place. To do them may have the still more important advantage that once pupils have begun to learn they will not readily stop.

THE SUMMER CONVENTION

New York City

June 27-30, 1938

Headquarters of the Department of Secondary-School Principals: Hotel New Yorker.

Local Chairman: Mr. Michael Lucey, Principal, Julia Richman High School, New York City.

June 27, Monday, 2:00 P.M.—*Group A*, Junior High-School Administrators.

Program in charge of Miss Bertie Backus, Principal of Alice Deal Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

2:00 P. M.—*Group B*, Junior High-School Administrators.

Program in charge of Dr. Joseph Roemer, Dean of Junior College, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

June 28, Tuesday, 2:00 P. M.—Joint Meeting with the Department of Classroom Teachers.

Program in charge of Miss Emily A. Tarbell, President of the Department of Classroom Teachers.

June 29, Wednesday, 2:00 P. M.—Senior High-School Administrators. Theme: *How Can Public Secondary Education Help to Bring About a More Effective Stabilized Society?*

Program in charge of Dr. Gustave A. Feingold, Principal of Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut.

June 30, Thursday, 12:15 P. M.—Luncheon. Plenary Session with Five-Minute Reports of Previous Sessions. Guest Speaker, Cameron Beck, Director of New York Stock Exchange Institute.

The Department of Secondary-School Principals

STATEMENT OF CONDITION

December 31, 1937

RESOURCES

Cash in Bank		\$ 5,113.94
Securities: (All carried at par value)		
Real Estate Loans	\$ 28,000.00	
Edgecomb Place Apts. (stock)	500.00	
Public Utility Bonds	3,000.00	
U. S. Treas. 3's of 51/55	10,000.00	
U. S. Treas. 2 1/2's of 55/60	1,000.00	
U. S. Treas. 2 1/2's of 56/59	10,000.00	
Cons. Fed. Farm of 1955	5,000.00	
H. O. L. C. 3's of 1952	7,000.00	
H. O. L. C. 2 1/2's of 1949	16,825.00	
Student Loan Fund (Notes)	2,470.00	\$ 83,795.00

INVENTORY:

Bulletins	\$ 28,151.83
Honor Societies & Shop	13,871.46
Department Supplies & Printed	
Material	713.09
Furniture & Fixtures	1,093.09
	43,829.47
Bills Receivable	\$ 1,532.60

\$ 134,271.01

LIABILITIES

Bills Payable \$ 41,148.11

Net Worth \$130,122.90 \$134,271.01

NEWS ITEMS

THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM IN THE UNITED STATES GREATLY NEEDS IMPROVEMENT. So began a report by the National Advisory Committee on Education which President Roosevelt sent to Congress early in March. The Committee recommended that financial aid from the federal government to schools be increased to \$199,000,000 a year by 1944. This is approximately four times the present amount of aid. After 1944, federal aid would depend upon whatever need then exists. The total sum recommended for allocation beginning in 1939 and ending in 1944 would amount to \$855,500,000. Salient features of the report are that education throughout America is characterized by glaring inequalities; in many localities it is below the level necessary to preserve democratic institutions; and the only manner in which the situation can be remedied is by federal aid. Too much federal control is now exercised over the vocational funds, the committee finds; the states should be authorized to determine for themselves what educational activities are to be deemed vocational. Although it costs two billion dollars a year to operate the public schools, the committee points out that research facilities at all comparable to those of the agricultural experiment stations are lacking in the field of education.

THE HIGH-PRESSURE METHODS employed by colleges and universities to recruit students were condemned by Walter A. Jessup, president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in the Foundation's Thirty-second Annual Report. "Many institutions are operating in constant fear of losing students," the report declares. "Not long ago the representative of a college dropped in to visit a high school in a small mid-Western city. His purpose was to bring the college to the attention of pupils of the school. He learned that this was the eighty-third visit of a college public-relations officer for that very purpose during that school year. We are familiar with the 'inducements' offered to promising athletes, but we may be astonished by the fact that drum majors and tuba players now find themselves possessed of special talents with a remarkable value in the college field. Jobs and scholarships are dangled before the eyes of impecunious high-school pupils. Fraternities and sororities vie in recruiting students who can pay their bills and bring glory (in press notices) to a chapter. The evil thread which runs through the fabric of recruitment devices is the attempt through them to exploit the student." When colleges adopt the high-pressure methods of business they should remember, according to Dr. Jessup, that "cut rates, rebates, extravagant claims, unfairness in competition have brought to business its own punishment. Just as surely, 'cutting corners' will ruin a college."

YOUTH EDUCATION TO-DAY is the title of the 1938 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. According to the committee which prepared this book, the biggest problem facing modern youth is that of getting a job. Modern youth is also deeply disturbed about how to get along with people. The yearbook proposes that youth be instructed in schools on sex problems, not by physicians but by psychologists and sociologists. The committee proposes that high-school studies be built around five cores of human activity: language arts, social relations, home and vocational arts, creative and recreative arts, nature, mathematics, and science.

THE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL of Ohio State University is developing unified courses, individualized work in the fine and practical arts, individual reading programs, and comprehensive records for each individual. The schedule is so arranged that each student has considerable "free" time which he may devote to individual projects. In one instance a class group made the selection of books to be purchased by the school library.

THE CURRICULUM COMMITTEE of the Michigan Secondary-School Association has made an inventory of innovative practices in high schools of the state. Some of these might be helpful in furnishing suggestions to schools in other states where curriculum revision is under way. The following practices were reported to the Committee:

A Course in The Art of Living—Human Relations; Essentials of Living; Personal and Social Problems; Developing Personalities; Personal Regimen—was found under various titles in Ecorse, Kalamazoo, North Muskegon, Grand Haven, Muskegon, and Flint Northern. In general this course covers relationship of students to school, home, family, and friends. It involves hygiene—personal, mental, social—and many other related topics. Sex instruction is included in some classes.

A course in the History of Michigan is offered at Saginaw High School and covers the period from early exploration up to and including Michigan of to-day.

A course in The American Heritage includes a correlation and integration of history, literature, music, and art. The course for the most part covers two hours and in some cases was assigned to two teachers. This course is offered in East Grand Rapids, Muskegon, Grand Rapids Union, Grand Rapids Ottawa Hills, and Kalamazoo.

A course in Non-College English provides for elimination of more difficult literary selections written for adults and substitutes those presenting adolescent interests. Provision is made for diagnostic testing and remedial instruction. Much current literature is included. Caro, Ann Arbor, Ferndale, Benton Harbor, Holland, and Muskegon report this course.

Science for non-college preparatory pupils—Senior Science; Descriptive Physics; Descriptive Chemistry—has been introduced to provide science study more appropriate to the non-academic pupil. General aims listed are: to develop an appreciation of the importance of science; to teach some of the fundamental principles and laws of science; and to develop a cultural background to help understand our scientific environment. Such courses are reported for St. Johns, Ferndale, and Northwestern High School, Detroit.

A course in Retail Selling offered at the Kalamazoo Central High School gives a general background of principles of selling and specific problems related to the job of part-time workers employed in stores.

Bank Statement Analysis is the title of a course offered in Ishpeming High School. This course provides for detailed study of bank statements. Students are taught first the importance of comparing several consecutive statements; second, the meanings of the headings; third, the significance of various banking operations.

A Crafts course for girls offered in Detroit Northwestern High School provides instruction in the various techniques employed in metal work. Correlation is provided with the art department.

Occupational courses—Vocational Civics; Vocations; Occupational Training; Occupations—were reported from Ferndale, Pontiac, Bay City, and North Muskegon. A summary of the outlines submitted shows that these vocational courses are used for purposes of orientation and development of appropriate vocational attitudes.

Apprenticeship Training is provided at Muskegon, Alpena, Dowagiac, and Grand Haven. By this plan, sponsored by the State Vocational Training Board, boys and girls spend one-half of their day in school and the other half in the shop. Excellent opportunities are provided for correlation of school work and industry. The training lasts from two to five years.

General or Individual Problems is provided at North Muskegon and at the University of Michigan High School. The course is planned to give pupils in the smaller schools a wider range in selection of problems to study and attack. In a relatively small school it is an excellent way to provide for individual differences and to expand the curriculum.

To YOUR CALENDAR OF DATES TO REMEMBER, add the following: Pan American Day, April 14; School and College Conference, University of

Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, April 14-15; National Boys' and Girls' Week, April 30-May 7; Short Course for School Cafeteria Managers, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma, June 6-10; Conference on Reading Problems for Administrators, Supervisors, and Teachers, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, June 23-25; Conference on Social Education, Stanford University, Stanford University, California, July 6-10; and Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, July 18-22.

A SURVEY COURSE embracing the various phases of home management is being offered to freshman girls in the Amundsen, Austin, Kelly, and Harper high schools of Chicago for the first time this year. The course is designed, not as a study of household management, but to give the girls an insight into home functions and human relations. Next year the course will be extended to all high schools of Chicago, according to Miss Frances Swain, director of the household arts department for the Chicago Board of Education.

A CORE COURSE ENTITLED, "Living at Castlemont," has been started for tenth-grade students at the Castlemont High School, Oakland, California. It includes such units as the following: Getting acquainted with the officers and staff; The history, tradition, and rules of the school; School activities; Manners and etiquette needed at school; Habits of Living and organization needed at school; and Study of the ability to read.

PROBLEMS OF PRESENT-DAY LIVING are given major emphasis in the new program of McKinley High School, Honolulu, Hawaii. The program is based on the idea that the common needs of students should be provided for through core studies, and that individual needs should be met through elective courses. The core courses are organized around problems arising from home-room or school affairs, community life, world relationships, or from personal problems.

PROGRAMS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT are under way in over seven-tenths of the cities above twenty-five thousand population; in slightly less than half of the school systems in communities of from five thousand to twenty-five thousand; and in a third of the systems in communities below five thousand. These figures are quoted from the February number of *The Education Digest*.

THE USE OF VISUAL AIDS in teaching has become very important during the past few years. Professional courses to train high-school teachers in the use of visual aids are in great demand at the present time as a result of unforeseen developments in this field. Pennsylvania has pioneered in both the introduction of visual materials into the school program and in the training of teachers for visual instruction. In 1936 forty-four of the seventy-two institutions offering courses on visual instruction were in Pennsylvania. A laboratory course on visual instruction is required in Pennsylvania before a teaching certificate will be granted. The Department of Public Instruction has issued a handbook for teachers entitled "A Summary of the Techniques of Visual-Sensory Aids for Teachers in Service and Teachers in Training."

IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL of the John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri, there is a unified course, a technical period, a creative period, and a physical education period. The four fields are required of everyone. An introductory course in psychology with emphasis on genetics and mental hygiene is offered to girls in the eleventh grade.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION of the Fort Collins, Colorado, public schools has authorized and provided financial backing for a program to study and evaluate present courses and to recommend needed changes. A curriculum council has been organized which consists of executive and advisory committees. The work of the school has been organized into five functional areas with two service groups which will work out their programs in relation to interest committees. The present courses of study are placed in vertical arrangement from the kindergarten through the senior high school in the following areas: Language activities, Social activities, Science activities, Practical activities, and Recreational activities.

The two service committees are those of guidance and health. Within each area, subcommittees are at work on each of the elementary, junior, and senior high schools.

A FINISHING COURSE for seniors is a new innovation at Union High School, Chowchilla, California. Four types of activity are being stressed: (1) Practical mathematics, which cover such topics as a review of the fundamental processes, insurance, installment buying, budgeting, farm and household problems, and taxes; (2) First aid; (3) The art of getting along with people, or human relationships; and (4) Healthful living.

AS PART OF A PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAM, the High School at Garden City, New York, is sending a very interesting monthly "News Letter" to citizens of the community. The purposes of this publication are: (1) to acquaint the parents and patrons with important facts concerning the educational program; (2) to help bring about a more intelligent understanding of the aims and objectives of the school; and (3) to encourage closer coöperation between home and school. Each issue is descriptive of some one important phase of the school program and is arranged to answer specific questions raised by citizens of the community.

THAT HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS spend slightly more than two hours daily listening to the radio which is twice the time devoted to reading, was shown by a survey conducted among parochial schools in Wisconsin and Missouri, according to *The News Letter*. The study also revealed that speech, English, and social science are the subjects in which radio gives the most help, and that the favorite educational programs are the news broadcasts. Friends recommend programs to forty-one per cent of the students; teachers guide thirty-five per cent; parents, four per cent; and relatives, one per cent.

A SURVEY OF SCHOOLS IN PASADENA, CALIFORNIA, by M. E. Bennett, director of guidance, revealed one hundred sixty cases of boys and girls who were, by the unanimous agreement of the principals, teachers, counselors, parents, and students themselves, totally maladjusted in their courses, completely dissatisfied with the school, and fully convinced that, in so far as their needs and interests were concerned, the schools were wholly ineffective and unconscionable. This was true in a secondary school where far more than the average progress in readjustment of the school and program had been made. By way of illustration, this school enrolled more than ninety-six per cent of all the students of secondary-school age, while the average is much lower.

ITHACA, NEW YORK STUDENTS have originated a unique solution to the problem of paying for their lunches. Under a plan which is being tried in the cafeterias of the junior and senior high schools, students may barter raw vegetables for cooked food. The plan is in operation for purchases under two dollars.

NEW PHASES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE EDUCATION were discussed at the annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges held at Philadelphia, March 4-5. The significance of the rapid growth of junior colleges was interpreted by a number of prominent educators. The American Association of Junior Colleges began eighteen years ago to foster the junior-college movement, then in its infancy; and it has seen the movement gain such proportion that the junior college is now generally recognized as a standard unit of secondary education. More than five hundred junior colleges in all parts of the country were represented at the convention.

LANE TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, Chicago, was the first school in the country to establish classes in air conditioning, classes to study Diesel Engines, and laboratory classes in safety driving; states "Our Public Schools," 1937 report of the Chicago superintendent of schools to the board of education.

THE INTERNATIONAL DRAWING EXCHANGE is observing its tenth anniversary this year. This group was started in 1928 at Roosevelt High School, Chicago, to help stimulate interest in art and drawing, and to

Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, April 14-15; National Boys' and Girls' Week, April 30-May 7; Short Course for School Cafeteria Managers, Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma, June 6-10; Conference on Reading Problems for Administrators, Supervisors, and Teachers, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, June 23-25; Conference on Social Education, Stanford University, Stanford University, California, July 6-10; and Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, July 18-22.

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PROBLEMS OF PRESENT-DAY LIVING are given major emphasis in the new program of McKinley High School, Honolulu, Hawaii. The program is based on the idea that the common needs of students should be provided for through core studies, and that individual needs should be met through elective courses. The core courses are organized around problems arising from home-room or school affairs, community life, world relationships, or from personal problems.

PROGRAMS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT are under way in over seven-tenths of the cities above twenty-five thousand population; in slightly less than half of the school systems in communities of from five thousand to twenty-five thousand; and in a third of the systems in communities below five thousand. These figures are quoted from the February number of *The Education Digest*.

THE USE OF VISUAL AIDS in teaching has become very important during the past few years. Professional courses to train high-school teachers in the use of visual aids are in great demand at the present time as a result of unforeseen developments in this field. Pennsylvania has pioneered in both the introduction of visual materials into the school program and in the training of teachers for visual instruction. In 1936 forty-four of the seventy-two institutions offering courses on visual instruction were in Pennsylvania. A laboratory course on visual instruction is required in Pennsylvania before a teaching certificate will be granted. The Department of Public Instruction has issued a handbook for teachers entitled "A Summary of the Techniques of Visual-Sensory Aids for Teachers in Service and Teachers in Training."

IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL of the John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri, there is a unified course, a technical period, a creative period, and a physical education period. The four fields are required of everyone. An introductory course in psychology with emphasis on genetics and mental hygiene is offered to girls in the eleventh grade.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION of the Fort Collins, Colorado, public schools has authorized and provided financial backing for a program to study and evaluate present courses and to recommend needed changes. A curriculum council has been organized which consists of executive and advisory committees. The work of the school has been organized into five functional areas with two service groups which will work out their programs in relation to interest committees. The present courses of study are placed in vertical arrangement from the kindergarten through the senior high school in the following areas: Language activities, Social activities, Science activities, Practical activities, and Recreational activities.

The two service committees are those of guidance and health. Within each area, subcommittees are at work on each of the elementary, junior, and senior high schools.

A FINISHING COURSE for seniors is a new innovation at Union High School, Chowchilla, California. Four types of activity are being stressed: (1) Practical mathematics, which cover such topics as a review of the fundamental processes, insurance, installment buying, budgeting, farm and household problems, and taxes; (2) First aid; (3) The art of getting along with people, or human relationships; and (4) Healthful living.

AS PART OF A PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAM, the High School at Garden City, New York, is sending a very interesting monthly "News Letter" to citizens of the community. The purposes of this publication are: (1) to acquaint the parents and patrons with important facts concerning the educational program; (2) to help bring about a more intelligent understanding of the aims and objectives of the school; and (3) to encourage closer coöperation between home and school. Each issue is descriptive of some one important phase of the school program and is arranged to answer specific questions raised by citizens of the community.

THAT HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS spend slightly more than two hours daily listening to the radio which is twice the time devoted to reading, was shown by a survey conducted among parochial schools in Wisconsin and Missouri, according to *The News Letter*. The study also revealed that speech, English, and social science are the subjects in which radio gives the most help, and that the favorite educational programs are the news broadcasts. Friends recommend programs to forty-one per cent of the students; teachers guide thirty-five per cent; parents, four per cent; and relatives, one per cent.

A SURVEY OF SCHOOLS IN PASADENA, CALIFORNIA, by M. E. Bennett, director of guidance, revealed one hundred sixty cases of boys and girls who were, by the unanimous agreement of the principals, teachers, counselors, parents, and students themselves, totally maladjusted in their courses, completely dissatisfied with the school, and fully convinced that, in so far as their needs and interests were concerned, the schools were wholly ineffective and unconscionable. This was true in a secondary school where far more than the average progress in readjustment of the school and program had been made. By way of illustration, this school enrolled more than ninety-six per cent of all the students of secondary-school age, while the average is much lower.

ITHACA, NEW YORK STUDENTS have originated a unique solution to the problem of paying for their lunches. Under a plan which is being tried in the cafeterias of the junior and senior high schools, students may barter raw vegetables for cooked food. The plan is in operation for purchases under two dollars.

NEW PHASES OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE EDUCATION were discussed at the annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges held at Philadelphia, March 4-5. The significance of the rapid growth of junior colleges was interpreted by a number of prominent educators. The American Association of Junior Colleges began eighteen years ago to foster the junior-college movement, then in its infancy; and it has seen the movement gain such proportion that the junior college is now generally recognized as a standard unit of secondary education. More than five hundred junior colleges in all parts of the country were represented at the convention.

LANE TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, Chicago, was the first school in the country to establish classes in air conditioning, classes to study Diesel Engines, and laboratory classes in safety driving; states "Our Public Schools," 1937 report of the Chicago superintendent of schools to the board of education.

THE INTERNATIONAL DRAWING EXCHANGE is observing its tenth anniversary this year. This group was started in 1928 at Roosevelt High School, Chicago, to help stimulate interest in art and drawing, and to

promote international good-will. Drawings have been exchanged with secondary-school students in almost every nation. Many exhibits showing work of students in the different countries have been arranged. Further information in regard to the work of the International Drawing Exchange may be secured from W. G. Hjertstedt, Roosevelt High School, Chicago, Illinois.

TRAINING FOR CRITICAL READING is an objective of journalism courses in New York City high schools, according to a survey made by Jesse Grumette of Lincoln High School. Journalism achieved a permanent place in the high-school curriculum last year when approved by the State Board of Regents. In most New York City high schools the subject is now treated either as an elective or as a special course taught in lieu of one of the regular terms of English. "High school journalism," however, is not, as it might seem from the name, a vocational course for the relatively few students who plan to enter journalism as a profession," said Mr. Grumette. "Nor is it a training camp for amateur journalists who aspire to positions on the school newspaper. Fundamentally, it is a course in training for citizenship and critical reading. While the work covers the elementary phases of journalism, such as the news story, headlines, make-up, editorial, features, and so on, it emphasizes teaching students to 'read between the lines.' The same news occurrence is studied as treated by a number of newspapers. After a discussion of political bias versus impartiality in the news, the student emerges a better-equipped potential voter. By subjecting the various metropolitan dailies to a comparative analysis to determine their varying degrees of accuracy, and by seeing, (by means of a paragraph, for instance) what percentage of the newspaper is devoted to news and what to blather, it becomes a comparatively simple task for the student to select an intelligent newspaper for his daily perusal."

PHOTOGRAPHY IN HIGH SCHOOLS, both as an activity and as part of the curriculum, is becoming more popular every year. In some schools, photography is studied as a separate subject. More often it is taken up in connection with other sciences or is carried on through a camera club. Not only is photography of real interest to students because of its practical applications, but it offers many points of contact with other subjects. It is especially valuable to those who later take up any kind of scientific or technical work. Due to the widespread interest in photography, the Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, New York, has established a Camera Club Photographic Service. The following may be secured upon request: Bulletins on the organization and maintenance of an active school club, a series of illustrated photographic lectures, and various booklets that deal with photography.

TWO SIGNIFICANT STUDIES are included in the 1938 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I of the Yearbook, entitled *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, is a comprehensive overview of guidance practices in the United States. It was prepared by a committee of leading authorities on guidance, headed by Grayson N. Kefauver of Stanford University. Part II, entitled *The Scientific Movement in Education*, gives a broad, descriptive account of the methods and results of a systematic study of education. In addition to the members of the Committee on Education as a Science, thirty-four other outstanding educators are associate contributors to this part of the report. Dr. Frank N. Freeman of the University of Chicago is Chairman of the Committee on Education as a Science. The Yearbook is published by The Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

A NEW SOCIAL STUDY was started this year in the Seattle, Washington, schools. The course is called "Pacific Northwest" and deals with the resources, industries, and life of the people in that section of America. It is being taught in experimental classes in junior and senior high schools at the 9A level. Mr. W. A. King, principal of James Monroe Junior High School of Seattle, and Elmer D. Fullenwider, a teacher of social studies in the same school, are working on a textbook for this

course. Teachers in charge of the new course believe that it should be included in the curriculum and should emphasize local appreciation.

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION is being emphasized this year in Texas. John B. Pope, former principal of Canyon, Texas, High School, has been appointed state coordinator of distributive education in the state department of education. As distributive education is an entirely new field, the following short explanation is offered: Distributive occupations are those followed by workers directly engaged in, or in direct contact with consumers when, (a) Distributing to consumers, retailers, jobbers, wholesalers, and others the product of farm and industry, and (b) Managing, operating, or conducting a commercial service or personal service business, or selling the service of such a business. A vocational distributive subject is one involving a discussion or presentation of the specific working practices of a distributive occupation for the purpose of increasing the skill, technical knowledge, occupational information, or judgment of workers engaged in that specific occupation.

A COURSE IN COÖPERATIVE MARKETING in North Dakota high schools was provided for by the last legislature. A course of study for this one-half unit course has been sent to principals by the state board of education. Members of the committee which prepared the outline state that they have been unable to find any high-school textbooks for this course, but that several good bulletins on the topic are available. Next year the outline for the course will be revised in the light of experiments which will be conducted this year in the various schools.

CONSERVING OUR NATURAL RESOURCES is the title of a bibliography prepared by the American Association for the Advancement of Science with the coöperation of Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore. This consists of a selected list of materials useful to high schools and discussion clubs on the following topics: What is conservation? Conservation and use of land, Save the Forests, Water conservation, Oil and gas conservation, Saving our minerals, Wild life conservation, and Conservation material in magazines.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOLS in the Philippines is being replaced by a general curriculum of two types: type A, and type B, according to L. B. Bewley, Director of Education. Like the academic curriculum, both are made up of four years superimposed upon a seven-year elementary school. In both types, the subjects are approximately sixty per cent academic and forty per cent vocational. In the type A general curriculum, the vocational courses, which are offered in the second, third, and fourth years, are required of both boys and girls, who may take additional academic subjects as optional subjects if they desire. In the type B general curriculum, the vocational subjects are optional or elective. The results of five years of experimentation with the type A general curriculum in a number of high schools have shown its great superiority over the academic curriculum. In all likelihood, the former curriculum will ultimately replace the latter, as it is the most suitable to the needs and conditions of the Philippines.

THE MINNESOTA ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS published a special bulletin recently in honor of Dr. Harl R. Douglass, who has resigned as professor of secondary education at the University of Minnesota to become Dean of the school of education at the University of North Carolina. His relations to the high-school principals is described in the introductory statement as follows: "When Dr. Douglass came to Minnesota, he breathed new life and vigor into the Minnesota Association of Secondary-School Principals. His interest and his stimulating service on its board of directors has been responsible in a large part for the increase in membership in the organization, its renewed activity, and its service to its members. His efforts to professionalize the position of the high-school principal are beginning to bear fruit. The secondary-school principals of Minnesota are indebted to Dr. Douglass in no small measure."

CALENDAR OF PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS

Music Educators National Conference, St. Louis, Missouri, March 27-April 1.

Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Adolphus Hotel, Dallas, Texas, March 31-April 1.

American Academy of Political and Social Science, Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, April 1-2.

Northwest Association of Secondary and High Schools, Spokane, Washington, April 4-6.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, April 6-9.

Association of California Secondary-School Principals, Hollywood, California, April 10-13.

Minnesota Association of Secondary-School Principals, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, April 12-14.

Kentucky Association of Secondary-School Principals, Louisville, Kentucky, April 13-15.

Colorado Association of Secondary-School Principals, Boulder, Colorado, April 14-15.

Georgia Education Association, Atlanta, Georgia, April 14-16.

Tennessee Education Association, Nashville, Tennessee, April 14-16.

Massachusetts Teachers Federation, Boston, Massachusetts, April 16.

Association for Childhood Education, Netherland-Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio, April 19-23.

National Catholic Education Association, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, April 20-22.

American Association for Health and Physical Education, Atlanta, Georgia, April 20-23.

Ohio High-School Principals' Association, Columbus, Ohio, April 22-23.

West Virginia Association of Secondary-School Principals, Bluefield, West Virginia, April 22-23.

South Dakota School Executive Association, Vermillion, South Dakota, April 29-30.

Maine Association of Secondary-School Principals, Augusta, Maine, May 5-6.

American Council on Education, Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D. C., May 6-7.

National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Salt Lake City, Utah, May 15-20.

American Association of Adult Education, Berkeley Cateret, Asbury Park, New Jersey, May 16-18.

American Library Association, Kansas City, Missouri, June 13-18.

National Education Association, New York, New York, June 26-30, 1938.

Department of Secondary-School Principals, New York, New York, June 26-30.

National Association of Student Officers, New York, N. Y., June 28-29-30.

Fifth Annual Conference on Business Education, The School of Business, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, June 30-July 1.

Seventeenth Annual Printing Conference, Washington, D. C., July 1-3.

Second World Youth Congress, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York, August 17-25.

Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York, August 21-24.

BOOK NOTES

Strang, Ruth. *Counseling Techniques in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937. Pp. x+159. \$3.00.

This volume is the third in a series of summaries dealing with personnel work in educational institutions. It is devoted to techniques of work with individuals, including the interview, observation, the rating scale, autobiography; and the integration of data from various sources in the case study and cumulative record.

Paterson, D. G., Schneidler, G. G., and Williamson, E. G. *Student Guidance Techniques*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. xv+313. \$3.00.

Student Guidance Techniques was prepared as a handbook for counselors, teachers, educational administrators, and students in training for personnel work. The authors believe that one of the chief reasons secondary schools are not better able to meet the needs of their students is the lack of technically-trained workers to provide adequate guidance services.

Schutte, T. H. *Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary-School Level*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+583. \$3.25.

The writer has attempted to present guiding principles that an intelligent teacher, well grounded in subject matter, can apply to classroom situations. The author believes that a large portion of social-studies teachers are unfamiliar with fundamental principles of education and psychology. Therefore, the emphasis in the book is on the philosophical aspects of education as related particularly to social studies.

Chamberlain, Leo. M. *The Teacher and School Organization*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xxviii+656. \$2.80.

With the passing of time, more and more emphasis is being placed on teacher participation in school administration. Those at the head of the administrative functions of the schools welcome and encourage teacher participation in those administrative problems that directly affect the professional status of teachers, and those that are immediately associated with the instructional process. The purpose of this book is to provide a background of information to equip teachers to discharge this duty effectively.

Among the books published recently which were written to focus attention upon the problems of youth and to facilitate the intelligent consideration of these problems are:

Brooks, Wendell S. *Youth: Adrift or Alert?* Boston: Meador Publishing Company, 1937. Pp. 92. \$1.00.

George, William R. *The Adult Minor*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. xxv+192. \$2.00.

Harley, D. L. *Surveys of Youth*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education Studies, 1937. Pp. viii+106. \$.50.

Rainey, Homer P. *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. ix+186. \$2.00.

Sellin, Thorsten, and Young, Donald. *The Prospect for Youth, The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1937. Pp. ix+233. (November number.)

Winslow, W. Thacher. *Youth, A World Problem*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. xv+138. \$.25.

Youth Education Today. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1938. Pp. 509. \$2.00.

The following publications on good manners were written especially for boys and girls of high-school age:

Allen, Betty, and Briggs, Mitchell Pirie. *Behave Yourself! Etiquette for American Youth.* New York: Lippincott, 1937. Pp. 163+x. \$1.00.

Head, Gay. *Boy Dates Girl.* New York: Scholastic Corporation, 1937. Pp. 46. \$.35.

Barbour, Ralph Henry. *Good Manners for Boys.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Pp. vi+119. \$1.50.

Irwin, Inez Hayes. *Good Manners for Girls.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Pp. x+147. \$1.00.

Eldridge, Elizabeth. *Co-Etiquette.* New York: Dutton Co., 1936. Pp. 252. \$2.00.

Stephenson, Margaret B. and Millett, Ruth L. *As Others Like You.* Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, 1936. Pp. 40. \$.25. (Paper).

Talking It Through

The booklet, "Talking It Through; a Manual for Discussion Groups," is now off the press, and we are anxious for you to see it and call it to the attention of others who are interested in the discussion group movement. This booklet explains the purposes and progress of the movement, and discusses methods of forming groups, maintaining them, and in general of furthering the enterprise. Its most important contribution, however, lies in the consideration it gives to the technique of discussion. How can discussion best be carried on, whether in the classroom or elsewhere, so as to promote coöperative understanding, increase knowledge, and make real coöperative thinking possible? These are the questions which the booklet undertakes to answer. We believe it will be helpful, not only to members of discussion groups, but to classroom teachers who wish to make recitation periods more meaningful.

This booklet sells for 15 cents. You may order it from: Discussion Group Project, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.; or Department of Secondary-School Principals, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

It is the hope of the Department of Secondary-School Principals that the booklet may find its way into the hands of principals and teachers in every school system. We shall appreciate the orders which may come from your institution and also your recommendation of the booklet to your friends.

COMMITTEE ON PLANNING
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